

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association *of* Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers



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On the Value of Annual Meetings

THE PRESIDENT of one of our oldest and largest universities who in past years had addressed the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, visited our campus recently. In greeting him I referred to his talk before our Association. In the conversation which followed he asked me if members really received any value from the conventions other than an opportunity to visit with their friends. I was very happy to say to him that I enjoyed immensely visiting with my associates but I had never attended a convention of the AACRAO that I had not come away with constructive suggestions for the succeeding year. I think that in our Association this opinion is shared by most members.

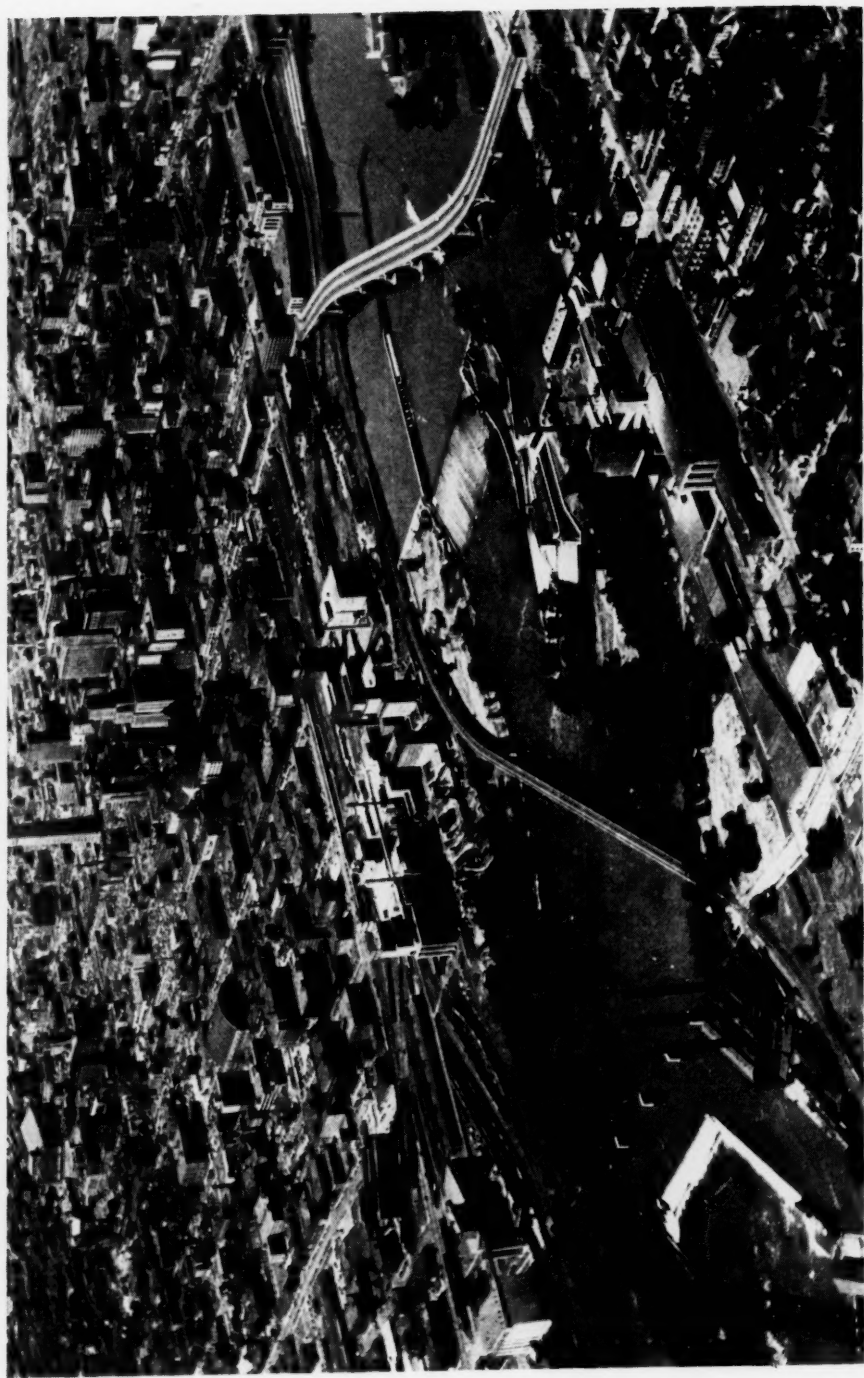
The social value of meeting with one's professional associates should not be minimized. How much easier it is to write to an individual about a troublesome problem when one has met him at convention!

Is any experience more rewarding than to find in discussing one's own solution to a problem that it is endorsed by our more experienced members? It is at conventions that older and newer members join together in thinking through professional problems of mutual interest and complexity. Here one discusses the Selective Service System, changing policies in admissions requirements, improvements in registration and recording, and the preparation necessary to meet the problems of the years ahead when enrollment in our colleges and universities is likely to surpass anything heretofore experienced.

Conventions also provide opportunities for examining exhibits which acquaint one with the latest equipment that is available, and this year there will be the added feature of a display of the literature in our own professional field. Stimulating speakers who are outstanding in their fields may be heard. In the workshop of one's choice one has the opportunity to bring up for discussion in a friendly and informal atmosphere those points of view which need clarification. It is here that one hears and sees those whom one ordinarily knows only through the printed page. Although the emphasis is, of course, on the professional side, interspersed with it is the opportunity for a satisfying measure of the social life.

I am asking you to attend the 39th national convention in Minneapolis, April 20-23 not only for the advantages which come to you personally, but also that, by attending, you may share actively in promoting your own professional organization, the AACRAO, which year by year is becoming increasingly effective in bringing greater recognition to the Registrar and Admissions Officer.

E. E. D.



DOWNTOWN MINNEAPOLIS AND THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER FROM THE AIR

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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

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High Grades and Low Grades

*An inquiry into factors accounting for variations in grading
practices among the schools and colleges of the
University of Georgia*

VAN CLEVE MORRIS

I. INTRODUCTION

EVERY year the Registrar of the University of Georgia prepares an analysis of grades given by each instructor in the University in a given quarter of the academic year. This analysis is always received by the faculty with considerable interest, and one may be sure that each instructor brings to its interpretation his own system of academic values. Recently there has been considerable discussion concerning the interpretation that is most properly applied to an analysis of this kind and the conclusions that professional people may sincerely draw from it. In an effort to summarize this discussion and to investigate more thoroughly some of the points raised, a study was made to identify the various factors which may account for the considerable variation in grading practice that exists among schools and colleges at the University of Georgia and to determine the relative effect each of them may have on this variation.

In a recital of the various factors pertaining to this situation, one may begin with the immediate temptation that one experiences upon

studying the Registrar's analysis, i.e., to assume that the relative level of grading of various individual instructors, departments, or schools and colleges is an index of the relative academic integrity of these groups. While there is nothing intrinsically invalid about this assumption, it is nevertheless true that it may be employed safely *only after* several other factors have been examined, weighed, and disposed of. It is the nature and relative significance of these other factors to which this report is devoted.

II. NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

The percent of A's, B's, C's, D's, E's, and F's granted by each division of the College of Arts and Sciences and by each school and college in the University has been computed directly from raw data on the fall quarter of 1950 provided by the Registrar. If a grade of C is considered a neutral or average grade, the relative level of grading of each department may be determined by examining the percent of

TABLE I
GRADING INDEX OF THE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
(Fall Quarter 1950)

School or College	% of A's+ % of B's	% of D's+ % of E's+ % of F's	Grading Index	Rank Order
*Biological Sciences	30	42	-12	1
*Physical Sciences	34	38	- 4	2
*Language and Literature	39	33	6	3
*Social Sciences	38	25	13	4
Law	40	21	19	5
Business Administration	41	13	28	6
Agriculture	59	13	46	7
Pharmacy	55	9	46	8
*Fine Arts	60	6	54	9
Forestry	62	6	56	10
Education	69	5	64	11
Journalism	73	6	67	12
Home Economics	75	3	72	13
Veterinary Medicine	76	2	74	14
Arts and Sciences	40	29	11	
Professional Schools	57	10	47	
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA	49	19	30	

* Divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences.

A's and B's granted in comparison to the per cent of D's, E's,¹ and F's granted. If the latter of these percentage sums is subtracted from the former, a single rough index of grading² may be arrived at. Table I presents these figures for the several schools and colleges of the University.

III. POSSIBLE CAUSAL FACTORS

With these figures before us, let us examine the factors which may possibly account for this situation:

1. *The quality of students*

Instructors in departments with high grade averages sometimes conclude that their field of study tends to attract a more selective group of students. Although, in some instances, this may be a case of "the wish being father to the thought," it is altogether possible that there may actually be a positive correlation between the quality of students in the several colleges and the grades granted by these colleges. However, there is no evidence at present to support this idea. Studies now in progress are looking into this possibility and the results will be reported in a future issue of this journal.

2. *The quality of teaching*

A claim somewhat less frequently advanced holds that evidently a better job of teaching is going on in those schools and colleges in which the grade average is high. Here again the possibility is real, but evidence supporting this idea is not at hand. Members of the University faculty having acquaintance with actual classroom teaching in several departments may arrive quite sincerely and, to an extent, objectively at private conclusions on this matter. Some would not claim good teaching in "high average" departments, but would be inclined to question the quality of teaching in those courses in which 30 to 50 per cent of the students customarily fail. In all fairness, however, it must be admitted that no really reliable data exist by which one could test this possibility. Unlike the quality of students, future prospects in determining the relationship between grading and teaching effectiveness do not suggest immediately available avenues of

¹ An E is a temporary grade which must be changed to either a D or an F.

² Referred to below as Grading Index or G.I.

research. Our instruments to measure student ability, while not wholly reliable, are relatively refined when compared to our present techniques for establishing the presence of good teaching. Here is a field in which carefully prepared and systematically conducted studies are needed.

3. *Admissions policies*

It is of course obvious that rigorous selective procedures would tend to eliminate the weaker student. This is so primarily because the qualities measured in selective procedures are normally the same qualities measured in an institution's grading program. The rigorous screening given to incoming students in the School of Veterinary Medicine yields the kind of student group more likely to receive the higher grades in veterinary studies. Since this type of regular admissions screening is not employed by any other school or college, it can be considered a significant factor only in the case of that one school.

4. *Guidance policies*

While most of our schools and colleges have no special admissions requirements, each does to some extent attempt to discourage the weaker student from continuing in his studies. The obligation of a university to its constituency includes the provision of educational facilities of the kind and quality needed, but it also includes the discouragement and redirection of those individuals whose talents and abilities lie in alternative fields. This kind of guidance is provided quite systematically in the School of Home Economics, the College of Education, and the College of Business Administration. In each of these schools, courses are given (without credit in the case of the College of Business Administration) in which freshmen and sophomores are able to undergo a battery of intelligence, interest, aptitude, and personality adjustment tests in order that they may assess their own strengths and weaknesses with respect to the fields open to them and in which they are interested. In the case of the College of Education, all students enrolled are required to take this course and several students annually are encouraged to consider fields other than teaching. Many of these individuals, either by their own introspective inventory made possible through the above courses, or by means of firm guidance, are "counselled out" of the College of Education.

The guidance course in the School of Home Economics, "Home

Economics Orientation," is taken by all home economics students. A significant number of women taking this course eventually choose to do their major undergraduate work in other schools or colleges. A major share of those transferring out of the School of Home Economics do so because of their poor showing in studies (required by the School of Home Economics) in the divisions of physical and biological sciences of the College of Arts and Sciences. In a very real sense, students are guided out of home economics to develop their abilities in fields in which their success is likely to be greater. It is probable that what happens in the School of Home Economics and the College of Education is duplicated in the College of Business Administration and perhaps in other schools.

5. Required and elective courses

Individuals work best when they are doing things which have meaning for them. While one may wish it otherwise, it is nevertheless true that, for many individuals, the task of exposing one's self to and coming into an understanding of the cultural heritage of the human race is unpleasant and seemingly without immediate bearing upon life and its problems. In a university curriculum the transmission of the "hard core" of this heritage is done through a fairly comprehensive sequence of required studies. As is well known, these studies are almost exclusively found in the curriculum of a university's college of arts and sciences; such is the case at Georgia. The degree to which this factor is reflected in the relatively low grading index of the College of Arts and Sciences is, of course, indeterminate on the basis of evidence at hand. A careful study of grades received by students of various schools enrolled in given courses required by the University would be necessary before any judgment could be reached in this regard. The fact that most of such required courses are taken during the freshman and sophomore years may enable us to examine this possibility indirectly. The following section explores this factor.

6. Lower and upper division courses

An effective procedure for selecting students must not stop with admission to an educational institution but must properly be continued throughout the entire course of study. A continual process of discouraging the weak and immature must necessarily be a part of

any university's educational obligation to those who support it. Assuming that the University is exercising this function, it is to be expected that juniors and seniors represent a more able and mature group than do freshmen and sophomores. The ratio of enrollment in lower division (1-199) courses to that in upper division (200-599)

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE RATIO OF ENROLLMENT IN LOWER DIVISION AND
UPPER DIVISION COURSES IN THE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
(Fall Quarter 1950)

Table I				
School or College	No. of Students	Rank Order	Percent in courses in	
			Lower Division	Upper Division
*Language and Literature	1847	3	84	16
*Physical Sciences	1819	2	78	22
*Biological Sciences	876	1	77	23
*Social Sciences	2233	4	69	31
Home Economics	405	13	47	53
Agriculture	1688	7	37	63
*Fine Arts	973	9	36	64
Business Administration	2507	6	32	68
Pharmacy	391	8	31	69
Education	1279	11	24	76
Journalism	375	12	24	76
Forestry	499	10	18	82
Veterinary Medicine	906	14	12	88
Law	516	5	100 U.D.	
Arts and Sciences	7748		72	28
Professional Schools	8566		27	73
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA	16,314		48	52

* Divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences.

courses varies among the schools and colleges of the University. Table II presents this variability in graphic form.

It is significant to note that almost three-fourths of the students enrolled in the College of Arts and Sciences were freshmen and sophomores and only one-fourth juniors and seniors, while almost exactly the reverse was true of the professional schools. Comparing Table I with Table II, the divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences have both a greater proportion of freshmen and sophomores enrolled in their classes and also a relatively lower grading index

than is true of other schools in the University. Is there a causal relationship?

From raw data provided by the Registrar on grades given in the fall quarter of 1950, the grading index has been computed for each school and college of the University in both lower and upper division

TABLE III
GRADING INDEX ON LOWER DIVISION COURSES IN THE SCHOOLS
AND COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
(Fall Quarter 1950)

School or College*	% of A's+ % of B's	% of D's+ % of E's+ % of F's	Grading Index	Table I Rank Order
*Biological Sciences	28	44	-16	1
*Physical Sciences	30	41	-11	2
*Language and Literature	34	37	- 3	3
*Social Sciences	34	31	3	4
Business Administration	38	21	17	6
Agriculture	51	20	31	7
Pharmacy	53	20	33	8
Forestry	53	15	38	10
*Fine Arts	56	7	49	9
Journalism	64	11	53	12
Veterinary Medicine	60	5	55	14
Education	67	9	58	11
Home Economics	72	3	69	13
Arts and Sciences	34	35	- 1	
Professional Schools	52	16	36	
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA	39	29	10	

* Divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences.

* School of Law not included.

courses. Table III presents the lower division figures. The range in G.I. is 85, almost identical to that in Table I—86. The variance in G.I. between Arts and Sciences and the professional schools is 37, also almost identical to 36 in Table I. However, an Arts and Sciences G. I. of 11 on all courses drops to -1 on lower division courses, and that of the professional schools from 47 to 36. The G. I. of the University as a whole drops from 30 to 10.

Table IV presents upper division figures. Here the prevalence of higher grading seems widespread. The range in G.I. is only slightly less—78; but the variation between Arts and Sciences and professional schools has dropped to 16, indicating greater similarity of practice

at this level. Referring again to Table I, the Arts and Sciences G.I. rises from 11 to 37, that of the professional schools from 47 to 53, while the University as a whole rises 19 points from 30 to 49. Also evident in Table IV is the greater spread of Arts and Sciences divisions in the listing. The divisions of Social Sciences and Language and Literature have given way to Business Administration and Pharmacy.

TABLE IV
GRADING INDEX ON UPPER DIVISION COURSES IN THE SCHOOLS
AND COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
(Fall Quarter 1950)

School or College	% of A's+ % of B's	% of D's+ % of E's+ % of F's	Grading Index	Table I Rank Order
*Biological Sciences	35	36	— 1	1
Law	40	21	19	5
*Physical Sciences	50	26	24	2
Business Administration	42	10	32	6
*Social Sciences	47	14	33	4
Pharmacy	56	5	51	8
*Language and Literature	64	12	52	3
Agriculture	63	10	53	7
*Fine Arts	63	5	58	9
Forestry	63	5	58	10
Education	70	3	67	11
Journalism	77	3	74	12
Home Economics	78	3	75	13
Veterinary Medicine	78	1	77	14
Arts and Sciences	53	16	37	
Professional Schools	60	7	53	
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA	58	9	49	

* Divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences.

The above suggests that the variation in grading practice may be accounted for partially by this factor but that considerable variation as brought out in figures on lower and upper division courses, does remain. An examination of the rank order of schools in Tables III and IV as compared with that in Table I reveals that this variation is distributed pretty much the same in all three sets of data.

By way of comparing Tables III and IV, Table V presents the difference in lower and upper division indexes for each school and

college. Little differentiation is shown in grading of lower- and upperclassmen in the College of Education, the School of Home Economics, and the division of Fine Arts. On the other hand, the divisions of Social Sciences, Physical Sciences, and Language and Literature indicate sharp differences in their grading of lower- and upperclassmen. The ratio of lower- to upperclassmen in each school, of course, influences the over-all grading index. Referring to Table II, it is interest-

TABLE V

DIFFERENCE IN LOWER DIVISION G.I. AND UPPER DIVISION G.I. FOR THE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA (Fall Quarter 1950)

School or College ^a	Lower Division G.I.	Upper Division G.I.	Index Difference
Home Economics	69	75	6
*Fine Arts	49	58	9
Education	58	67	9
Business Administration	17	32	15
*Biological Sciences	-16	- 1	15
Pharmacy	33	51	18
Forestry	38	58	20
Journalism	53	74	21
Veterinary Medicine	55	77	22
Agriculture	31	53	22
*Social Sciences	3	33	30
*Physical Sciences	-11	24	35
*Language and Literature	- 3	52	55
Arts and Sciences	- 1	37	38
Professional Schools	36	53	17
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA	10	49	39

* Divisions of the College of Arts and Sciences.

* School of Law not included.

ing to note that the division of Language and Literature, working with 1556 lowerclassmen, yielded a G.I. of -3 but with 291 upperclassmen yielded a G.I. of 52. The relative preponderance of freshmen and sophomores in the divisions of Social Sciences and Physical Sciences is also significant in interpreting Table V.

In summary, it must be inferred from all of the above that the factor of class standing of students does have a significant effect upon the grading practices of the several schools and colleges.

7. *Aptitudes and interests*

Closely parallel to Nos. 5 and 6 above is the factor of interest in one's major field. It is reasonable to expect a student who has gravitated toward devoting a major share of his time and effort to the study of forestry or English literature to exhibit a keenness of interest and a special aptitude for these studies. To the extent that the discussion on upper division enrollment in No. 6 above also reflects the importance of this factor, we may be satisfied that majors in any field in the University appear to indicate a greater facility in their chosen work than in the other kinds of studies in which they are perforce engaged. Here again, a specially designed study would yield the desired data.

It may be advanced by some that those in professional schools are likely to exhibit a greater measure of this aptitude and interest owing to the fact that a professional, occupational motivation for excellence in a course of study provides greater incentive than does the motivation exerted by scholarship itself, or by scholarship for scholarship's sake. Thus it might be argued that this thing we refer to as aptitude or interest would be more intense in the forestry student than in the student of English literature. This is admittedly forcing a point and is mentioned here only as a possibility. There is no evidence either on hand or in sight which would document the influence of this factor, and it seems only proper to discount its effect as negligible.

8. *Pre-grade elimination*

Passing judgment on others is a task which many individuals do with reluctance. Particularly unpleasant is the necessity to pass judgment when the judgment is unfavorable. It may be safely said of the great majority of college and university instructors, indeed teachers anywhere, that the giving of low grades is a disagreeable duty. Doubtless it is more disagreeable to some than others, and many of these teachers have devised techniques by which they are able to circumvent this unpleasant responsibility. These techniques take the form of elimination of weak students before a course is concluded or before a grade is called for. In this way, individual instructors are able to maintain the integrity of their scholarship while at the same time reducing the necessity for assigning low grades to students under their instruction. Without an understanding of the degree to which these practices are employed, it would be unfair to consider an individual

instructor's grading index a fair measure of his academic integrity, even assuming all other things to be equal. Whether or not this factor may safely be included as influential in the present discussion is questionable. While the degree of use of these elimination techniques varies from instructor to instructor and from course to course, one would expect such variations to balance out within a department or school. On the basis of evidence at hand, it would seem unwarranted to make any significant claims for the effect of this factor.

9. Social philosophy of higher education

This discussion was not intended to consider the pedagogical function of grading. However, it seems essential to explore briefly the nature of higher education in a democratic society and the responsibilities which educators believe they have to that society. Certainly a major responsibility of a university, public or private, is to prepare and train men and women of such understanding and skill that they may carry on the more complicated, delicate, and difficult activities required for modern living. That is to say, of the many occupations in which men engage, some are more important, more intricate, more strategic to a social order than are others. Men and women, to enter these occupations, must necessarily possess greater vision, broader intelligence, and more consummate skill than those entering other fields. It is a university's privileged function to oversee the education of these men and women. In order to discharge this obligation, a university's standards must obviously remain high. To allow them to fall would be to endanger society itself. Grading policies so oriented must necessarily be committed to the discouragement and elimination of the mediocre and unfit.

A university in a democratic society must assume a second major responsibility. It must seek to raise the level of education and well-being of the society in which it operates, and it must necessarily seek to do this through the education of as many individuals in that society as may desire instruction in its halls. Educational opportunity, in the American tradition, is not simply a privilege but a right, universally available to all. The publicly supported institution of higher learning came into being in America when our people came to consider this right as binding at the collegiate level as it had come to be at the elementary and secondary level. To fulfill properly its societal obligations in this regard, a university must allow all those

who enter to pursue their studies as long as they are making a determined effort to learn and are becoming, as a result of their association with the institution, better educated human beings ever more able to carry the responsibilities of democratic citizenship. It is altogether proper and necessary that this be the case, and grading policies oriented to this conception of education must reflect a democratic regard for the mediocre as well as the gifted.

These two social concepts—the education of a select few for positions of leadership and responsibility, and the education of all—seemingly so incompatible, must find a common denominator in the day-to-day functioning of a complex institution such as a state university. It goes without saying that either of these concepts exerts a relatively greater influence than the other in the thought and action of the several schools and colleges in this university. But to say that one or the other of these concepts is the more worthy is to misconstrue the role of public higher education in America. In sum, a school's own interpretation of its obligation to the social order may measurably influence the nature of its grading policies and practices.

It is perhaps significant to add that, so far as academic standards are concerned, those now enjoyed and maintained by scholars and teachers in the fields normally included in the arts and sciences were first established in earlier days when the necessity for educating all college-age youth was not so apparent as it is today. As a result of modern insistence upon educating everyone, a university's job has changed vastly in scope and purpose, and these academic standards at times may appear to some to be somewhat unrealistic in terms of present-day conditions. On the other hand, the standards of any new and infant discipline must grow with the discipline itself. The professional schools of any university, for the most part, represent relatively new and developing fields of study, and so similarly, though for a different reason, their standards may frequently appear unrealistic in the light of modern needs.

IV. CONCLUSION

Nine factors of varying scope and significance have been discussed above, in an effort to explore the degree to which each may account for the variation existing among the several schools and colleges in their grading practices. As mentioned at the outset, the inference that this variation indicates a variation in academic integrity is justifiable

only after other factors have been examined, weighed, and disposed of. Certainly several of the factors discussed above cannot with honesty be dismissed as unimportant. Evidence is too clear that they do affect grading practice. As to whether the evidence presented accounts entirely for the discrepancies in grading practices, no one may say with certainty. The evidence is not conclusive one way or the other. At least one may conclude that more investigation into this problem would be helpful to university teachers and administrative officials.

A Working Philosophy for an Office of Admissions

WILLIAM GLASGOW BOWLING

TOUCHSTONE, in *As You Like It*, asks Corin: "Hast any philosophy in thee, shepherd?" And Corin replies, in part:

"No more but that I know the more one sickens the worse at ease he is; and that he that wants money, means, and content is without three good friends; that the property of rain is to wet and fire to burn; that good pasture makes fat sheep, and that a great cause of the night is lack of the sun."

Like human beings, offices also have their philosophy, and it is my purpose here to consider a working philosophy for an Office of Admissions.

Before we embark, however, on this excursion into the philosophical, a few general remarks may be in order relative to changes that have taken place in recent years in the administrative structure of many of the offices which handle the work of admissions. Prior to the Second World War, there was a pleasantry in Academe to the effect that it was as difficult to change a college curriculum, or other administrative structure, as it was to move a cemetery. But the tranquillity of the past stood as but prologue to the upheaval which took place in higher education when the veterans in overwhelming numbers returned from the theatres of war to begin or renew their college studies. Our public secondary schools have long been in a period described as that of the emerging curriculum, and it may appropriately be said that, for our institutions of higher learning, the 1940's ushered in the period of the emerging Admissions Office. Prior to this period of upheaval and change, the work of admissions had, by and large, been the function of the Registrar's Office or the offices of the various academic deans, although even in earlier times there had been a certain number of Deans or Directors of Admissions, or Chairmen of Committees on Admissions. But in the 1940's, many of our institutions of higher learning made changes in their administrative structures, looking toward a more centralized handling of admissions and toward a better articulation and closer understanding between themselves and

the secondary schools. New Offices of Admissions were established, carrying for the person in charge the title of Dean or Director of Admissions. In many instances, also, particularly in the larger institutions, Registrars were accorded changes of title to Dean or Director of Admissions and Records, so as to indicate more adequately their areas of responsibility. And in 1949 the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, founded in 1910, expanded its name to the broader designation of American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Since we are, then, in a period of the emerging Admissions Office, we might appropriately consider the philosophy in accordance with which such offices conduct their affairs.

The Office of Admissions is the gateway to the college or university which it is the privilege of that office to serve. In Tennysonian phrase, it is the arch wherethrough "Gleams that untravell'd world" which will be eagerly travelled by the young men and women approved for admission into it. Hence it would seem that the guiding philosophy of an Admissions Office might be the understanding that it is to be helpful, courteous, and considerate in all transactions with the public, and ever to be mindful that, as the front door to the college or university concerned, it should reflect the dignity and prestige which that institution over the years has attained.

The public served by the Office of Admissions is interesting and varied. It includes prospective students and their parents, or other relatives or interested friends; the superintendents, principals, headmasters, counselors, guidance officers, and teachers in the secondary schools; and its public also includes the members of the faculty of its own institution.

It is within the framework of this broader concept of public relations and of expanded educational services in general that the Admissions Office nowadays goes about its narrower function of the admitting of qualified new students. In the light of this more comprehensive concept of duties and responsibilities, the Admissions Office seeks to interpret its institution to the prospective student and to the secondary school; and, conversely, it endeavors to interpret the new student and the secondary school to the members of its own faculty. Thus, in a rather real sense, the Admissions Office has become the strategic link between our systems of secondary and of higher education. Of the many ways in which this program of interpretation is carried on, mention may here be made of only the more significant.

The Admissions Office interprets its university to the prospective student through personal conferences in the office with the student, and frequently with his parents as well; through conferences with the student, in his secondary school, on the occasion of college-day, college-night, career-day, or other special programs; through other visits to the secondary schools, always arranged for in advance, by members of the staff of the Admissions Office or other duly designated representatives of the college or university concerned; through the printed media of informational and guidance bulletins, leaflets, or folders; through the personal word of a graduate or other friend who is a member of the staff of the secondary school in which the prospective student is enrolled; or through the help of a well-organized and responsible alumni group.

The Admissions Office interprets its university to the secondary school by conversations with high-school officials on the occasion of special programs to which an invitation to be present has been extended; through courtesy calls on the secondary schools at other times; through informational and guidance publications; through talks at faculty meetings of the secondary schools; through talks before meetings of parent-teacher associations; through participation in, or, at least, attendance at, the programs of teacher organizations or other professional associations with which representatives of the secondary schools are closely identified; by encouraging high-school and college teachers who give instruction in the same subject, but on different levels, to become acquainted with one another; and through conferences, meetings, or institutes which bring the officials of the secondary schools to the campus of the college or university concerned for programs of mutual interest and value.

The Admissions Office interprets the new student to the university it serves by preparing for the deans, or other administrative officers, data sheets which are explanatory of the student's high-school record. These reports may also indicate the areas in which the student is strong, the areas in which he may need help, or other facts about the new student which the secondary school has felt the university should know. Obviously, all such background information supplied by the secondary schools is highly confidential, and must be so regarded by any administrative office which may have access to it.

The Admissions Office interprets the secondary school to its own institution by way of discussions, formal or informal, designed to

remind members of the faculty of the problems which the forces of growth and change have scattered across the field of secondary education. In certain instances, also, there may be arrangements in accordance with which selected members of the faculty are asked to assist the Admissions Office in the work of high-school visitation. Among other things, all such visits to the secondary schools give the college instructors concerned an opportunity to observe at first-hand the conditions under which our high schools conduct their educational programs.

An understanding of the problems with which our public high schools are nowadays confronted can be rather sobering. In 1870, for instance, some 80,000 students were enrolled in the secondary schools, public and private, and 60,000 in the colleges and universities; by 1940, however, some 7,000,000 were enrolled in secondary schools and 1,500,000 in the colleges and universities, with more than another million participating in part-time vocational or adult education programs. Nor were these changes in numbers the only mutations. In the bland and tranquil days before the turn of the century, those who went to high school were, on the whole, a rather homogeneous group. They were, by and large, the children of the well-to-do families, and they looked forward to the learned professions or to leadership in politics or in the business world. But nowadays all social and economic groups are represented by students in the typical high school, with a resulting diversity of aims and objectives instead of the original unity of purpose. In the 1870's three-fourths of those who attended the secondary schools went on to college; but nowadays approximately two-thirds of the students in our high schools do not continue their education beyond the secondary level. Our public high schools, therefore, have found themselves faced with the problem of providing a curriculum that ministers to the elusive needs of the two-thirds of the students who will not go to college as well as to the more tangible needs of the one-third who are college-bound. The forces of growth and change which have challenged our system of secondary education since the turn of the century have, among other things, called for a restudy of our entire concept of college entrance requirements, and they have also brought into clear focus the urgency for good teaching on the college level.

Dr. Samuel Johnson, in his celebrated *Dictionary of the English Language*, defined "Pension" as follows: "An allowance made to any

one without an equivalent. In England it is generally understood to mean pay given to a state hireling for treason to his country." At a later time, however, Dr. Johnson agreed, after discussion with his friends, to accept the pension which George III bestowed upon him as the reward for literary merit. On the occasion when the first payment of this pension was considerably overdue, Dr. Johnson felt called upon to write to the Earl of Bute regarding it. In this letter, he reminded the Earl that his Lordship's "knowledge of the world" had long since taught him "that every man's affairs, however little, are important to himself." Similarly, the letters of inquiry, application papers, transcripts, and other credentials which flow into an Office of Admissions are important to those whom they personally concern, no matter how routine they may seem to others. Promptness in the answering of letters, promptness of decisions as to acceptance or refusal of applicants, or promptness of notification as to the date when such decisions will be made, are, in twisted Shakespearean phrase, customs ever more honored in the observance than the breach. An ingredient in our philosophy, then, should be the realization that every student's affairs, however little, are important to the student concerned as well as to that student's family.

As Plato has told us in Book VIII of his *Republic*: "States are as the men are; they grow out of human characters." States, then, or countries, are no better than the people who comprise the populations of those states or countries. Similarly, offices are as the people who work in those offices are; they derive their composite character from the personalities of those who comprise their working forces. As previously noted, an Office of Admissions serves a varied public. The secretarial staff of such an office, at least in the larger colleges and universities, not only deals extramurally with the officials of the secondary schools, prospective students, and their parents, but it also deals intramurally with other offices; and the work, under either of these categories, is heavily laden with public relations. The members of the secretarial staff deal with the public by letter, by telephone, by personal interview in the office, and by the careful and confidential evaluation of records. It can be set down as a truism, however homely or platitudinous, that tensions and regrettable misunderstandings invariably arise, intramurally as well as extramurally, when a secretary discusses too freely with the secretaries of other offices the confidential work of the office she serves. Accordingly, the secretarial positions in

an Admissions Office should be entrusted only to those who possess the qualities of patience in dealing with others, tactfulness, discretion, judgment, as well as the ability to carry through accurately on lines of work which fall within their areas of responsibility. An office which pulls together as a team is nearly always an efficient and happy office.

I have often thought that all who work in offices should, of their own volition, read Rudyard Kipling's short story *The Ship That Found Herself*, in his volume *The Day's Work*. As the owner's daughter who christened the steamer *Dimbula* observed, "She's a real ship, isn't she?" But the skipper replied that the hundreds of parts which comprised the *Dimbula* had not yet learned to work together, with the result that, as yet, the *Dimbula* was "just irons and rivets and plates put into the form of a ship." On the first voyage, all the hundreds of parts that comprised the *Dimbula* began talking aimlessly to themselves: the capstan, the deck-beams, the stringers, the web-frames, the rivets, the bow plates, the screw, the piston, the garboard-strake, the bulwark-plate, down to the big centrifugal bilge-pump. Then the gale gathered force, and the first great test was on. The bottom rivets sobbed: "We were ordered—we were ordered—never to give; and we've given, and the sea will come in, and we'll all go to the bottom together." But the Steam, which described itself as "only a poor puffy little flutterer" that had to stand a good deal of pressure in its own business, became a consoling voice. "Between you and me and the last cloud I came from," said the Steam to the rivets, "it was bound to happen sooner or later. You *had* to give a fraction, and you've given without knowing it." And the Steam spoke consolingly to the other parts, which gradually became aware of their strength as they found that by working co-operatively they could weather the gale and thus carry out successfully the functions which the builders had expected of them. As the *Dimbula* moved into harbor, there was silence among the hundreds of parts which had earlier been talking aimlessly to themselves. A new, big voice had become the only spokesman, and this new voice said slowly and thickly: "It's my conviction that I have made a fool of myself." As Kipling tells us, "The Steam knew what had happened at once; for when a ship finds herself all the talking of the separate pieces ceases and melts into one voice, which is the soul of the ship." And thus runs the story of *The Ship That Found Herself* by finding the strength that lies in teamwork and co-operation.

In his poem, *Mending Wall*, Robert Frost considers the conflicting philosophies of the two New England farmer-neighbors who each spring go about the task of repairing the stone fence that merely separates the apple trees of the one from the pine trees of the other. As Frost writes:

Something there is that doesn't love a wall,
That sends the frozen-ground-swell under it,
And spills the upper boulders in the sun.

And as Frost continues, one could say elves, "But it's not elves exactly." In like manner, and apropos of our present excursion into the philosophical, it might be observed: "Something there is that nearly always makes us dread an application blank or questionnaire." We might say it's the labor involved in filling such forms out; but it's not that exactly so much as it is the lack of consideration for others on the part of many of those who design such things. In the revising, then, or the re-designing of our admission forms, let us always keep in mind the convenience of those whose task it is to fill in the blank spaces. Such forms should be attractively printed on a good grade of paper; they should look interesting and not forbidding. Explanations should be clear, and there should always be ample space for the easy supplying of the information requested. In all such forms, too, simplicity is a virtue, and complexity a fault. And the Admissions Office should use its persuasive influence to keep other branches of the institution from cluttering up the admissions blank with information that has little or no bearing at all upon the evidence used in the reaching of a decision as to the accepting or refusing of the applicant. Some offices supply the student with a separate blank for information about the applicant, and they supply the secondary school with a separate blank for the furnishing of the student's transcript of record. Other offices prefer that all information be submitted in but one master form. Under either procedure, however, the blank which the secondary school is asked to fill in should be designed for ease in typing. Intelligently designed application forms are tremendously effective instruments of good will.

A clarity of understanding is always essential to the effective pursuit of any co-operative undertaking. In the admission of freshmen, the work is a co-operative enterprise between the institutions of higher learning and the secondary schools; and, in the admission of students with advanced standing, the work is a co-operative venture

among the colleges and universities themselves. The Admissions Offices in the universities will wish to work for uniform admission standards among the divisions which admit freshmen and also for uniform policies relative to the evaluation of transcripts of students applying for admission with advanced standing. Admission requirements should always be clearly and honestly stated in the catalogues or other official publications. On the basis of these printed statements, the high-school principals, counsellors, or guidance officials advise their students relative to the requirements for admission to the institution of the applicant's choice. From time to time and for just and compelling reasons, the Admissions Office will wish to consider for admission certain outstanding high-school seniors who do not entirely satisfy the requirements as officially stated. In all such instances, however, the Admissions Office should check with the secondary school, since failure to do so may lead to utter confusion on the part of the counselling services of the secondary school concerned.

As "good Corporal Nym," in Shakespeare's *Henry the Fifth*, reminds us, "There must be conclusions." The conclusions to be drawn from our present excursion into the philosophical are too obvious and apparent to warrant expansive re-statement here. It may, however, be appropriate to repeat that the work of admissions has, in many of its aspects, become the work of public relations and educational services in a broad and general sense. The heart and pulse of good public relations are smooth and effective operational procedures. Smooth operational procedures are the rewards of clarity of purpose and understanding, mutual respect and consideration for one another, and clear-headedness as to the myriad of little details which collectively comprise the major portion of the day's work anywhere.

Admissions Criteria (Review of the Literature)

A Report To The California Committee For The Study Of Education

JOSEPH P. COSAND

THE SEARCH for an acceptable admissions policy has been proceeding for generations—and with as much diligence as marked those efforts of our ancestors in their quest for the "Philosopher's Stone." However, I do not intend to imply that the results have been as negative, for there is much evidence of a growing understanding of the complexity of the problem. We no longer believe that some one method will be developed which will give us the answer, but rather look toward a combination of methods which cumulatively will provide a better solution—and by better solution, we mean one which will most benefit the student.

We are agreed that admission standards are indispensable if we are to prevent chaotic conditions from developing in our colleges. However, we must also agree as to what degree of flexibility is beneficial for both the student and the college. The nature of the admissions office itself tends to control both the college and the secondary schools preparing students for entrance into the college. If this is so, we may well ponder those lines of Robert Frost—"Before I built a wall, I'd ask to know what I was walling in or walling out, and to whom I was like to give offense."

Not only are our colleges and their admissions offices a reflection of the society in which they exist, but also they are in turn exerting leadership on society. By their policies they determine to a large degree who is to be educated. If the colleges are to serve society as true educational leaders, and thus meet the demands society places upon them, we must be certain that there is a belief in flexibility, and a mature consideration of the individual differences of those students desiring admission. May I quote from John Johnston,¹ who in 1924 made the following statement: "An institution whose resources are

¹ Johnston, John Black, "Predicting Success or Failure in College at the Time of Entrance." *School and Society*, 19:772-6; 20:27-32, June 28-July 5, 1924.

limited only by the wealth of a state and the goodwill of its people, and whose aim is to give those people the support they furnish—must undertake to make the most of capable young people, rejecting none by a hard rule insufficiently proven. However, if it can be shown that the performance of the applicant gives ground for predicting with only negligible error those individuals who will fail in college work, the college can act on such information and would not be justified in neglecting this means of improving its service to society." This statement emphasizes the need for a closer working agreement between the secondary schools and colleges, and an honest understanding of the admissions problem. It demands that we achieve a solution best designed to benefit first the student, then the secondary and collegiate institutions.

In theory, we have made much progress during the past twenty years in terms of selective methods emphasizing the individual differences of students. However, much of the practice is still in terms of the traditionalized methods of rigid control which have been so detrimental to the growth of the secondary schools on a broad curricular base. Certainly the influence of admissions requirements should be positive rather than negative, and every change in entrance requirements should be regarded in the light of its possible effect on the secondary school, whether high school or junior college. In fact, all changes in admissions policies should be the logical outgrowth of the educational philosophy of the institution, and should be made only after careful consideration of the results to be anticipated with regard to the students, the college, the secondary school, and the community or society in general.

Much could be said concerning such dilemmas as standards *versus* public relations, and enrollment *versus* standards, but these vary so widely according to the type of institution concerned that it is beyond the scope of this paper. Suffice it to say that if colleges honestly attempt to serve society and not their own ends, much of the confusion regarding admissions requirements will be eliminated. It is apparent that the admissions officer must have a philosophy that reflects the purpose of his institution, and does not allow temporary pressures to sway him from his course. If the admissions officer can adopt the viewpoint stated by Charles Davis² of Michigan that the entrance re-

²Davis, Charles M., *A Survey of Transfer Admissions in Colleges and Universities*, University of Michigan, 1940.

quirements ordinarily are neither a line of demarcation nor an average of acceptance, but rather a point of view from which the admissions officer looks at any application, he may then be both objective and flexible in his judgments. However, if the effectiveness of an admissions office is to be increased, it is necessary that there be continuous and systematic checking of the academic success of the students in terms of their entrance quality.

Before discussing the different admissions methods now used, I would like to recall a statement made by Ralph Prator³ of Bakersfield College—"It is evident that . . . the emphasis on entrance requirements during the last forty-six years has shifted somewhat, but instead of new criteria replacing the old criteria for selecting college students, we add the new, but we retain the old." This statement has been borne out again and again in surveying the literature on college admissions.

It is possible to divide the admissions methods into fourteen different categories. However, some are used far less often than others, and only those generally accepted by a large percentage of collegiate institutions will be discussed. These include:

1. Completion of a set pattern of required courses.
2. Required minimum academic achievement for a set pattern of courses.
3. Required minimum academic achievement in secondary school work.
4. Required minimum academic achievement for the last two or three years of preparatory work.
5. Rank in high school graduating class.
6. Entrance tests.
7. Principal, counselor, teacher recommendations.
8. Personal interview.
9. Combination of two or more of the above.

1. Completion of a Set Pattern of Required Courses

This is generally thought of as the Carnegie Unit method and it reached its zenith of popularity between 1920 and 1930 when nearly all of the colleges had instituted single sets of academic requirements along the line of the Carnegie Units. However, a reaction set in, and today this method is under severe attack. This reaction has resulted in a trend away from any rigid adherence to a set pattern of required courses and toward an evaluation of students' work from a qualitative

³Prator, Ralph, *Administration of Admission to Colleges and Universities*, Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, University of California, 1947.

basis rather than from a quantitative viewpoint. President Lowell⁴ of Harvard stated that the unit plan is compared to wheat being poured into a grain elevator, whereas it is often more like fruit placed in a cold storage plant without the means of refrigeration, or perhaps like the contents of an incinerator. Be that as it may, the unit plan as quantitative rather than qualitative method of selection is generally discredited and has given way to the next three methods.

2. *Required Minimum Academic Achievement For a Set Pattern of Courses*

This modification is a more rigorous interpretation of the previous method and is therefore open to the same criticism. It is used today by more colleges and universities than any other single method. It *does* place emphasis upon quality, and quality has been consistently shown to be one of the best measures of future academic success. However, it continues to straight-jacket a secondary school's curriculum and because of this, *in theory*, is unacceptable to secondary school people.

3. *Required Minimum Academic Achievement In Secondary School Work*

Most literature recommends this as one of the best if not the best method for the prognosis of student success in college. College success in terms of secondary school success has shown a fairly high and consistent correlation from .50 to .65, in the various studies made. These correlations tend to bear out the fact that the average grade is the best single criterion for predicting success. Certainly it favors the statement that ability, and not amount of secondary school training in a *subject*, is the decisive factor in college success.

Of special interest to us here are the studies being made in terms of the removal of certain grades in computing the overall secondary school grade average. Practically no correlation is found between physical education, health education, crafts, certain family life courses, etc., and successful college work. In fact, it is believed that when high grades in these courses raise an overall average so that the student may enter a college, his chances of success are negligible. Therefore, we will view with interest the results of these research studies. This is perhaps a combination of methods two and three and may

⁴Cowley, W. H., "The Current College Admissions Situation," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 13, pp. 34-46, January, 1940.

bring us a bit further along our thorny path of admission policies.

Since this method is favored by the majority of both college and secondary school administrators, the modification suggested may add to its popularity. But may I again sound the warning that no single method is now believed to be the best criterion for admission.

4. Required Minimum Academic Achievement For The Last Two Or Three Years of Preparatory Work

Since the advent of the junior high schools there has been a trend toward considering only the last two or three years of high school in the evaluation of the secondary record. This has gained popularity as educators continue to move in the direction that the ninth year is an experimental year, and should not be included in the overall high school average. Use of this method will enable those students to enter college without being penalized for an inferior beginning in their high school preparatory courses. Students entering under this method at the University of California have done approximately the same as those students entering under the previous method.

5. Rank In High School Graduating Class

Next to the average high school grade method, this method has proven to be the most popular single method for predicting collegiate success, and many believe it to be the best. The correlations vary between 0.50 and 0.60. The literature shows close agreement in the interpretation of class rank. A statement by E. C. Seyler⁵ is indicative of the general attitude. "Rank in high school classes offers a means of making predictions more accurate than a guess would be, and as such has distinctive value." He states further that it is possible to predict with considerably accuracy the scholastic success in the freshman year of any group of students whose percentile rank in class falls within certain limits.

6. Tests (Aptitude and Subject)

Tests are used extensively but seldom as single criteria. Many studies have shown that when certain tests are used in conjunction with other criteria, multiple correlations up to 0.80 are possible in terms of college success. The University of Chicago has been particu-

⁵ Seylor, E. C., "The Value of Rank in High School Graduating Class for Predicting Freshman Scholarship," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 15:5-22, October, 1939.

larly active in this field and has devised an entrance program in which three tests are used—the A.C.E. test, a special reading test, and a special writing test. These together have consistently given a multiple correlation of from 0.65 to 0.72 with collegiate success.

Perhaps the most used single type of test to be combined with other criteria has been various forms of English tests. By themselves, they correlate from 0.40 to 0.50 with college success, and as such have not been used as single criteria. Some research has been completed in terms of specific subject tests for further work in the same subject field. These have had varying degrees of success, and accordingly varying degrees of support from collegiate institutions. In 1934 David Segal made a comprehensive study of various single tests, and in using them as single predictors for college success had correlations ranging between .38 and .51. At the same time he averaged twenty-three studies of high school marks as a single predictor and showed an average correlation of 0.55. This again brings out the advantage high school marks have consistently held over tests when used as single criteria for prognosis of college success.

7. Recommendation—Principal—Counselor

This is one of the top five methods used, and most recommended by principals themselves. In particular, it is used with respect to students who do not quite measure up academically, but who, in the opinion of the principal, are capable of doing college work. The literature is increasingly filled with articles emphasizing the importance of principal, counselor, and teacher recommendations as guidance tools, but not as sole admissions criteria. These recommendations are believed to be of particular importance with regard to the subjective factors affecting a student's academic and social success. Henry Borow has been doing recent research work with respect to the many subjective factors affecting collegiate success, and his articles are well worth reading.

8. Personal Interview

Admission on probation, personal interview, and careful evaluation of the past record in terms of progress are all related to the philosophy of selection on an individualized basis. This is a rapidly growing method, and is a part of the expanding programs of guidance now offered by many of our colleges and universities. The belief that many unmeasurable subjective factors should be brought

into consideration in the evaluation of a student's application for admission is gaining strength, and rightly so. Too long we have tended to treat students as pawns on paper without ever attempting to make a personal evaluation. The developing guidance programs in our colleges and universities, working in close harmony with the high schools and junior colleges, is objective evidence of the present trend in college admissions procedures. Bulger⁸ makes the plea for continuing guidance—high school, junior college, college—in which the personal data is cumulative, and becomes a part of the data that is passed on from high school to college. He suggests that follow-up studies go both ways, and by so doing, each will help develop the other's program of education. In other words, high schools, junior colleges, and colleges should all extend their guidance services, and by so doing bring about a more realistic articulation of the three institutions.

From the literature, one is forced to conclude that pre-admissions counseling is becoming an increasingly important function of the admissions office, and that the question to be answered with regard to each student is, "Is this applicant well advised to attempt the course for which he is applying in *this* college?" This forces the college to adopt a student-centered admissions policy in which are served first his interests, then those of the college. The present growth in co-operation between the California junior colleges, state colleges, and state universities is evidence of the desire to place the student first. The attempt at mutual understanding and co-operation made among these three types of institutions during the last few years is one of the brightest beacons we have yet had in admissions policies. Since the trend continues in the same direction, we may only conclude that more understanding and co-operation are forthcoming.

Michigan State has recently undertaken a summer counseling program with prospective students living on campus for a week. The results have been favorable and the articles telling of the plan are well worth reading. In fact, in this plan and in others as well, the endeavor to understand the nature and needs of prospective students has become so complete and disinterested that it not infrequently results in the guidance of students for *their* greater good toward other institutions, or toward some quite different unacademic career. This

⁸ Bulger, P. G., "What About Articulation of the Secondary School and College?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 34:144-49, March, 1950.

is also true of many of your state universities, and of many of the larger private colleges and universities when there is no problem of survival.

At the National Conferences on Higher Education in 1948, criteria were established which were deemed essential for an effective admissions program. Among these were: first, to pay greater attention to the personal qualifications of the applicant; second, to try to make a decision as to whether the applicant is well advised to attempt the course for which he is applying at that particular college; third, to realize that pre-admissions counseling is becoming an increasingly important part of the admissions officer's responsibilities. Ralph Pra-
tor concludes in his doctoral dissertation that intelligent guidance is the most reliable means of selecting the best college risks from a group of prospective candidates, and that no guidance is intelligent unless it is given fairly on the basis of a complete array of facts.

Two recently initiated programs are of importance in the admissions field because they have been developed through joint high school-college co-operation, and are state-wide in scope. They are the Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement, and the Illinois Program. The reviews of these make excellent reading and are challenging in their approach to the admissions problem. However, they are too detailed to give more than passing mention in this paper. They embody in their plans several of those specific criteria previously mentioned. The Michigan Plan in particular brings out the importance of the necessity for adequate personnel files, follow-up studies, and secondary school guidance in occupations and colleges. May I again recommend these two plans for your perusal.

Ralph Tyler⁷ brings out the need for close co-operation when he lists his six requirements for admission:

- "1. We need to know whether the student has the general intellectual, manual, and social abilities and skills generally prerequisite for successful work in school or college.
2. We need to know if his interests are in the fields represented by the school or college, or can be related to those fields.
3. We need to know if he has any habits, attitudes, or emotional predispositions which are likely to block successful work in the institution.

⁷Tyler, Ralph W., "Placement Tests as a Means of Determining Advanced Standing at the University of Chicago," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 20:520-6, July, 1945.

4. We need to know how many students to select.
5. We need to know for what related materials the students will be held responsible.
6. We need to know how we will place the students after admission."

The answers to these needs are not to be found alone by the secondary schools or by the colleges, but only through co-operation and joint action. This entails a close integration of the secondary school and college programs, especially in the guidance and counseling area. It seems only sensible that the individual himself should be studied closely with respect to the planning and conduct of the educational program. Many of our past and present methods have dealt disinterestedly with the student concerned, but the wealth of constructive recommendations for changes in these procedures have brought indications of a healthy trend.

Many say we are not in need of a new plan, but that our present admissions criteria should be modified and improved. This is the method of attack of most colleges today. Through the improvement of tools used for the measurement of abilities, achievement, and interest; through the development of better ways for appraising and describing personal characteristics; through the substitution of qualitative measures of competence for the present too-frequent quantitative units of years of study; and through the establishment of a broader base of acceptable secondary school courses, we may be able to make our college admissions policies more applicable to those they so vitally concern, the *individual student* desiring admission. This is a mandate for both the college and the secondary school, since each has equal responsibilities for the determination of a youth program consistent with our philosophy of educational opportunity. Neither should dictate, neither should withdraw, neither should "pass the buck," but both must be interested and concerned sufficiently to work together in the development of an admissions procedure for all concerned; the *student*, the *college*, and the *secondary school*.

CORRELATION SUMMARIES

In reviewing the literature, many studies brought out correlations between predictors and collegiate success which were of significance, either because of a particularly high figure, a low figure, or a series of consistent figures. The following charts give a picture of these

TABLE I
CORRELATION OF SINGLE PREDICTOR WITH COLLEGE SUCCESS

Study	Date	H. S. Grade	H. S. Rank	ACE Q	ACE L	ACE T	Mental	Gen. Achiev.	S.A.T. Verbal	S.A.T. Math
Brooklyn College Doppelt	1949	.63				.31				
Buffalo Wagner	1934						.45	.56		
California (Men) (L&S) Educational Testing Service	1949	.48							.31	.35
California (Women) (L&S) Educational Testing Service	1949	.49							.45	.32
California (Chemistry) Educational Testing Service	1949	.41							.39	.47
California (Engineering) Educational Testing Service	1949	.43							.21	.32
California Tech Educational Testing Service	1949								.42	.52
Chicago Diederich	1949					.55				
Christian College Freeman	1948						.56			
C. C. N. Y. Long	1943	.54				.29	.45			
Composite Borow	1946		.55				.45	.50		
Composite Study Leonard	1945	.55					.44	.55		

TABLE I—(Continued)

Study	Date	H. S. Grade	H. S. Rank	ACE Q	ACE L	ACE T	Mental	Gen. Achiev.	S. A. T. Verbal	S. A. Math.
Composite Study Segal	1934	.55					.45	.55		
Composite Study Segal	1937	.49								
Edds and McCall		.65				.48	.50			
Georgia Osborne	1949			.40	.47	.49				
Illinois Thomann	1948					.44				
Long Beach C. C. Brown	1949			Quant. sub .33	.30	.40				
Long Beach C. C. Brown	1949			Ling. sub. .18	.54	.44				
Long Beach C. C. Brown	1949			.34	.32	.40				
Michigan Wallace	1950			.29	.37	.41				
Mills College Educational Testing Service	1947		.36						.32	.33
Minnesota Kinney	1932						.44			
Myers and Schultz Myers and Schultz	1948 1949								.44 .47	.39 .39

TABLE I—(Continued)

Study	Date	H. S. Grade	H. S. Rank	ACE Q	ACE L	ACE T	Mental	Gen. Achiev.	S. A. T. Verbal	S. A. Math.
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TABLE I—(Continued)

Study	Date	H. S. Grade	H. S. Rank	ACE Q	ACE L	ACE T	Mental	Gen. Achiev.	S.A.T. Verbal	S.—T. Math.
Occidental Educational Testing Service	1948	.52		.33	.37	.41				
Oregon Douglas	1931	.56					.45	.55		
Peabody Cochran	1949	.63				.54		.34		
Peabody Gladfelter	1946	.68								
Pomona Educational Testing Service	1948	.48		.30	.32	.36			.49	.31
Puerto Rico Bau	1949	.51—.70								
Santa Barbara Durlinger	1942						.52	.48		
Whitman Educational Testing Service	1947	.47							.49	.30
Wisconsin Frelich	1941		.62			.55				
Wisconsin Frelich	1944						.48			
Wisconsin Lins	1948		.58 men .62 women			.42 men .49 women				
RANGE		.41—.68	.36—.62	.29—.40	.32—.47	.29—.55	.44—.56	.34—.56	.21—.49	.30—.52

TABLE II
MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS OF PREDICTORS WITH COLLEGE SUCCESS

Study	Date	Cases	ACE +Read. +Writing	H.S. Grade +E.T.S. Battery	Otis I.Q. +Iowa English	H.S. I.Q. +Study Perform	8 Test Achiev.	H.S. Grade +ACE	S.A.T. V S.A.T. NV H.S. Grade
University of Chicago (Diederich)	1949			.72* Consistently between .70-.80 on					
Brooklyn College (Doppelt)	1949	7638		.63					
Christian College (Freeman)	1948	1000			.68				
Composite Study (Leonard)	1945					.75			
Michigan (Wallace)							.55		
Wisconsin (Lins)	1928	756						.71	
Myers & Schultz	1949								.63
Oberlin (Hartson)						.75			
Occidental E. T. S.	1949	164		.61				.54	
Whitman E. T. S.	1947	87 109							.51 men .62 women

TABLE II—(Continued)

Study	Date	Cases	H. S. Grade +I.Q.	Eng. Grade +I.Q.	H. S. +Eng. Grades	H. S. +I.Q. +Eng. Grade	H. S. Grade Wisconsin	H. S. +ACE +Wiscon- sin	I.Q. +Rank +Content
California—Men E.T.S. (158)	1949	489							.53
California—Women E.T.S. (158)	1949	637							.59
California E.T.S. (Engineering)	1949	134							.48
California E.T.S. (Chemistry)	1949	47							.50
Edds and McCall			.71	.70	.54	.81* High			
Hamline (Root)			.56			.83			
San Diego (Hepner)			.56						
Wisconsin (Froelich)							.71	.72	
Composite (Borow)	1946								.75
Marquette (Butsch)									.70

TABLE III
CORRELATION OF PREDICTOR WITH SUBJECT PROFICIENCY

Study	Date	Cases	English	Soc. Stud.	For. Lang.	Math.	Physical Science	Fine Arts	Life Science
Boston University (Lanigan)	1946	163	Otis .29	Otis .42	Otis .23	Otis .24	Otis .53	Otis .38	
Boston University (Lanigan)			ACE .33	ACE .50	ACE .22	ACE .32	ACE .44	ACE .36	ACE
Boston University (Lanigan)			Read. .54	Read. .39	Read. .42	Read. .19	Read. .45	Read. .32	
Composite Study (Leonard)	1945		Mental .38	Mental .35	Mental .32	Mental .36	Mental .36		
Composite Study (Leonard)			Achiev. .42		Achiev. .36	Achiev. .32	Achiev. .32		
Composite Study (Leonard)			Sp. Achiev. .42		Sp. Achiev. .40	Sp. Achiev. .45	Sp. Achiev. .45		
Georgia (Osborne)	1949	958	ACE Q .43	ACE Q .33	ACE Q .33	ACE Q .40	ACE Q .43	ACE Q .14	ACE Q .46
Georgia (Osborne)			ACE L .57	ACE L .46	ACE L .46	ACE L .35	ACE L .46	ACE L .31	ACE L .54
Georgia (Osborne)			ACE T .57	ACE T .41	ACE T .45	ACE T .43	ACE C .44	ACE T .32	ACE C .54
Michigan (Wallace)	1950			ACE Q .16	ACE Q .18	ACE Q .28	ACE Q .26		
Michigan (Wallace)				ACE L .26	ACE L .29	ACE L .18	ACE L .32		

TABLE III—(Continued)

Study	Date	Cases	English	Soc. Stud.	For. Lang.	Math.	Physical Science	Fine Arts	Life Science
Michigan (Wallace)				ACE T .26	ACE T .28	ACE T .26	ACE T .33		
Michigan (Wallace)				Vocab. .24	Vocab. .25	Vocab. .12	Vocab. .27		
Michigan (Wallace)				Read. .24	Read. .24	Read. .22	Read. .28		
Michigan (Wallace)				Iowa F.L. .26	Iowa F.L. .45	Iowa F.L. .38	Iowa F.L. .30		

TABLE IV
CORRELATION OF HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECT WITH COLLEGE SUBJECT

Study	Date	Cases	Science	English	For. Lang.	Math.	Soc. Stud.	Chem.	Voc. H.S. College
California Tech (Educational Testing Service)	1949	139	.59			.50		.48	
Composite Study (Segal)	1937		.33	.42	.31	.38	.37		.13
Oregon University (Douglass)	1931		.54	.49	.46	.44			.35
Peabody College (Gladfelter)	1946		.48 Biology	.59	.48	.36	.66	.65	

predictors, and are self-explanatory. Of special interest is the chart giving the multiple correlations, which points out strongly the advantage of several predictors over a single predictor. As was mentioned previously, acceptance of several predictors is the trend in admissions policies today. Many research studies are now being carried on in admissions procedures, and the results of these studies are being anticipated by the colleges, secondary schools, and testing agencies. Certainly a review of the literature for the period from 1951 to 1955 will bring a wealth of material for all admissions offices—but I suspect that the evidence will continue to point in the direction of:

1. multiple predictors *versus* the single utopian predictor;
2. the need for *more* emphasis on individualized selection, and
3. the demand that secondary schools and collegiate institutions develop and bring into closer working agreements their guidance programs.

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Current Practices of Admission for Graduate Study in Education

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ONE OF the problems a changing social order poses for colleges and universities is that of policies pertaining to student admissions. This report deals with what appears to be a new trend in admitting applicants to graduate study in education. Data supporting the new trend were brought to light in a recent survey of the literature and the graduate programs of admission in fifty-one selected colleges and universities.¹

The results of the study may be summarized as follows:

1. There is a decided lack of information on prognosis of success in graduate study in education. The American Council on Education, as well as other agencies in the field, makes clear that "few, if any, final and complete answers" have been found to problems in prognosis of success in graduate study, but the answers which have been found should be helpful to counselors and others in the field.²
2. More than eighty-five per cent of the institutions represented in the study³ may accept the standard baccalaureate degree as sufficient evidence of successful completion of undergraduate study and satisfactory preparation for admission to graduate study in education. More than eighty-five per cent of the institutions represented may admit to graduate study in education applicants who
 - (a) possess the standard baccalaureate degree,
 - (b) have at least a "C" average in undergraduate work,
 - (c) have an acceptable distribution of undergraduate courses,

¹ Survey conducted by the writers at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois, Fall Quarter, 1951.

² *Predicting Success in Professional Schools*, American Council on Education Studies (Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1949), pp. 16-23.

³ From a study of recent statements in personal letters received from authorized representatives of fifty-one selected colleges and universities. The personal letters formed more than ninety-six per cent of all responses received. This resulted in the writers' being able to study the programs and policies of fifty-one of the original sampling of fifty-five institutions.

- (d) fulfill character requirements, and
- (e) fulfill health requirements.

Because of the wide variation in academic standards, not only in high schools and undergraduate schools but also in graduate schools, and because of the inaccuracy of tests and other instruments of prognosis of success in graduate study, it is difficult to follow any other admission practice.

3. More than ninety per cent of the colleges and universities surveyed make a clear distinction at both the master's and doctor's levels between admission to graduate study and admission to candidacy for a graduate degree. More than ninety-five per cent of them make a clear distinction between admission to graduate study and admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree. While more than eighty-five per cent of the colleges and universities may accept the standard baccalaureate degree as sufficient evidence of satisfactory preparation for admission to graduate study in education, more than ninety per cent refuse to accept it as sufficient evidence of satisfactory preparation for admission to candidacy for a graduate degree. In order to be admitted to candidacy for a graduate degree at both the master's and doctor's levels, more than eighty-five per cent of the institutions set up requirements in addition to those set up for admission to graduate study which must be satisfied first. More than ninety-five per cent of them set up additional requirements which must be satisfied before admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree is granted.
4. A majority of the colleges and universities responding require actual demonstration on the part of the applicant of ability to do the quality of graduate work desired before admission to candidacy for a graduate degree is approved. Use of this criterion does not imply that tests and other prognostic instruments of success in graduate study cannot be helpful for admission purposes when used correctly and with caution. However, if an applicant can do the quality of graduate work desired, then there can be little question about his participation in graduate study, so long as graduate degrees are conferred primarily on the basis of marks received in graduate courses.

PROGNOSIS OF SUCCESS IN GRADUATE STUDY IN EDUCATION

To review the status of efforts to predict success in graduate study, it is not necessary to present a detailed account of all the studies

which have been made. At least three such accounts are already available.⁴ Therefore, this section is devoted to the task of merely indicating the more important findings of studies dealing with prognosis of success in graduate study.

As yet manufactured tests or similar devices of prognosis of success in graduate study have revealed nothing even near perfection in predicting an individual applicant's success in graduate study.⁵ Travers⁶ of the University of Michigan states that in general present tests do not do the job desired.

Certain manufactured tests do yield at times significant correlation coefficients for the prediction of success in academic study, but no institutions were found which rely exclusively on the results obtained from the use of manufactured tests or similar devices to admit an applicant to graduate study or to candidacy for a graduate degree. One cannot accept national norms of a manufactured test for a given locality unless the norms are validated for that particular locality. One must establish minimum acceptable scores (cutting or passing scores) when such a test is used for the particular institution concerned. The graduate school which requires its applicants to make at least average scores on manufactured tests might be holding its entrants to an unreasonable standard.

In some quarters the question has been raised whether or not it would be equitable from the standpoint of certain concepts of democracy to rely exclusively on the results of the use of predictive instruments for admitting an applicant to graduate study. To some, to deny admission to graduate study to an applicant on the basis of the results of the use of manufactured tests—and without first giving the applicant a reasonable opportunity to demonstrate whether or not he can do the quality of work desired—would be a violation of an important concept of democracy.

⁴Harley F. Garrett, "A Review and Interpretation of Investigations of Factors Related to Scholastic Success in Colleges of Arts and Sciences and Teachers Colleges," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 18 (December, 1949), 91-138.

Predicting Success in Professional Schools, American Council on Education Studies (Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1949).

Walter S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York, N.Y.: The Macmillan Company, 1950), 263-66; 882-86; 1296.

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⁵*Graduate Study in Education*, *ibid.*, 91-93.

Predicting Success in Professional Schools, *ibid.*, 1-23.

⁶Robert M. W. Travers, "The Prediction of Achievement," *School and Society*, 70 (November 5, 1949), 293-94.

PREDICTIVE INDEXES AND CRITERION OF SUCCESS

The predictive indexes which will be reviewed are (1) scholastic achievement tests, (2) intelligence and scholastic aptitude tests, (3) character and personality traits, (4) teachers' marks and ratings, and (5) combinations of factors or indexes. The criterion of success against which the predictive indexes were judged was in all cases college marks or grade point averages.

Scholastic achievement tests

Monroe⁷ reports that correlation coefficients between scores on general achievement tests and college marks usually range from about .47 to .55. The Graduate Record Examinations seem to produce more substantial correlation coefficients. Heston,⁸ for example, reports that the correlation coefficient between scores made on the G. R. E. by one hundred seniors and their average college marks for a full four years was .68.

Seagoe⁹ reports that the University of California at Los Angeles gave the National Teachers Examinations to its doctoral applicants from 1941 to 1947, but no correlation coefficients were computed between scores on the N. T. E. and average marks in graduate work. He states that at the present time those applicants who make below a score of 60 on the N. T. E. are not admitted to the doctoral program. Ryan¹⁰ states that a score of 60 is the national average scaled score on the N. T. E. for teachers, although actually a score of 50 was intended to approximate an I. Q. of 100.

When upper-level performance¹¹ was used with scores made on the T. C. P. A., English Test,¹² the correlation coefficient was found to be .42.¹³ Scores made on the Iowa Silent Reading Test produced correlation coefficients ranging from .58 to .63 when compared with upper-level marks in educational psychology.

⁷ Monroe, *op. cit.*, 263-65.

⁸ Joseph C. Heston, "The Graduate Record Examination Vs. Other Measures of Aptitudes and Achievement," *Journal of Educational Research*, 41 (January, 1948), 338-47.

⁹ May V. Seagoe, "The Prediction of Success in a Graduate School of Education," *School and Society*, 69 (February 5, 1949), 89-93.

¹⁰ David G. Ryan, "The Use of the National Teachers Examinations in Colleges and Universities," *Journal of Educational Research*, 42 (May, 1949), 678-89.

¹¹ Beyond freshman year, but excluding student teaching.

¹² Teachers College Personnel Association Entrance and Classification Examination for Teachers Colleges.

¹³ *Predicting Success in Professional Schools*, *op. cit.*, 150.

Intelligence and scholastic aptitude tests

Monroe¹⁴ states that correlation coefficients between intelligence test scores and college marks range from .44 to .52. Sometimes, when tests are of both the intelligence and scholastic aptitude types (psychological types), the correlation coefficients are higher. Monroe, for example, reports that in one study scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination when compared with college marks produced correlation coefficients of .56 and .58.¹⁵ Garrett¹⁶ states that in another study in which scores on the A. C. E. Psychological Examination were used, correlation coefficients of .53 and .67 were found.

Osborne, Sanders, and Greene¹⁷ report that the "L" score (on linguistic subjects) of the A.C.E. examination has greater predictive value than the "Q" score (on quantitative subjects), but that the "T" score (total of all subjects) has greater predictive value than either of the two. Osborne and his associates found that marks in English and science are predicted with greater success than marks in other subjects, and that Fall Quarter marks are more accurately predicted than winter, spring, or yearly marks. They also report that success of female students is more reliably predicted with the A. C. E. examination than success of male students. Garrett¹⁸ does not appear to agree with the latter finding.

Brown¹⁹ in a study made an interesting observation that of those who rated below the twentieth percentile in A. C. E. "L" scores, five per cent made "B" or better in college marks and twenty-four per cent made "C" or "C+." Of those who rated below the twentieth percentile in A. C. E. "T" scores, none made "B" or better but forty-three per cent made from "C—" to "C+."

Correlation coefficients between scores on the Ohio State University Psychological Examination and college marks have had a wide range. Monroe²⁰ reports a correlation coefficient of .50 when scores on the

¹⁴ Monroe, *op. cit.*, 882-83.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, 883.

¹⁶ Garrett, *op. cit.*

¹⁷ R. Travis Osborne, Wilma B. Sanders, and James E. Greene, "The Differential Prediction of College Marks by A.C.E. Scores," *Journal of Educational Research*, 22 (October, 1950), 107-15.

¹⁸ Garrett, *op. cit.*

¹⁹ Hugh S. Brown, "Differential Prediction by the A.C.E.," *Journal of Educational Research*, 44 (October, 1950), 116-21.

²⁰ Monroe, *op. cit.*, 882-83.

O. S. U. examination were compared with college marks for one semester, and one of .44 when compared with marks for seven semesters. Garrett²¹ found some correlation coefficients as high as .62 and .65 between O. S. U. scores and college grades, but he also found some as low as .41 and .42. Northwestern University found a correlation coefficient of $.31 \pm .03$ between O. S. U. scores and marks in graduate study in education.²²

Scores on the Miller Analogies Test when compared with graduate marks in psychology produced a correlation coefficient of .68.²³ When Travers and Wallace²⁴ completed their recent studies, much lower correlation coefficients ranging from .09 (engineering) to .38 (physical sciences) were found.

A few correlation coefficients for T. C. P. A., Psychological Examination, scores and college marks have been reported.²⁵ The American Council on Education reports that in two studies correlation coefficients of .48 and .58 were produced.

Travers and Wallace²⁶ of the University of Michigan report that they have developed a new aptitude test to predict success in graduate study. They call the new test Academic Aptitude Test, Graduate Level, and report correlation coefficients between scores on the test and graduate marks of .54 (education), .52 (physical sciences), .50 (language and literature), and .49 (social studies). Both Travers and Wallace have advocated a new approach to the problem of prognosis of success in graduate study. They point out that variation in quality and quantity in public education makes it all but impossible to use knowledge as a basis of predicting success in graduate work. Teachers' marks are not always given on the same basis, and thus identical marks do not always have the same meaning. Their new approach would include (1) clearer definition of objectives of education, and (2) development of aptitude tests which would determine the extent to which applicants possess the psychological processes

²¹ Garrett, *op. cit.*

²² *Graduate Study in Education, op. cit.*, 91-93.

²³ Edward E. Cureton, Louise W. Cureton, and Ruth Bishop, "Prediction of Success in Graduate Study in Psychology at the University of Tennessee," *American Psychologist*, 4 (August, 1949), 361.

²⁴ Robert M. W. Travers and Winburn L. Wallace, "The Assessment of the Academic Aptitude of the Graduate Student," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 10 No. 3 (1950), 371-79.

²⁵ *Predicting Success in Professional Schools, op. cit.*, 145-47; 151.

²⁶ Travers and Wallace, *op. cit.*

and intellectual skills which are important for the accomplishment of the objectives defined and for success in graduate work.

Character and personality traits

Monroe²⁷ reports that the relationship between character and personality traits and college scholarship is not highly significant. Correlation coefficients were found to range from .30 to .44. But it does appear that such factors as scholarly interest, desire, effort, and maturity have an influence on college marks. McCandless²⁸ found no significant difference statistically when he administered the Rorschach test to candidates in a highly motivated wartime officers' training program, but he did find that high grade point men consistently had more emotional control, greater flexibility, less anxiety, greater ability to give attention to concrete details, and slightly greater productivity.

Teachers' marks and ratings

Monroe²⁹ states that teachers' marks in high school are generally of higher value for predicting success in college than any other single thing. Correlation coefficients between teachers' marks in high school and in college range from .55 to .70. The National Society for the Study of Education suggests that the best single criterion for predicting further success in college for an individual is the marks received during the freshman year.³⁰ Monroe agrees with this point in principle and states that the best single indicator of success in any given semester is the previous semester's record. The American Council on Education reports that the median correlation coefficient found between high school rank and performance in a teacher training program at the upper level was .38.

Garrett³¹ also found that the average grade in high school still has the highest correlation coefficient with marks in college. He reports the range to be from .29 to .83 with a median of .56. Northwestern University found a correlation coefficient of $.61 \pm .02$ between general undergraduate college marks and marks in graduate study in education.³²

²⁷ Monroe, *op. cit.*, 884.

²⁸ Boyd Rowden McCandless, "The Rorschach as a Predictor of Academic Success," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 33 (February, 1949), 43-50.

²⁹ Monroe, *op. cit.*, 884-85.

³⁰ *Graduate Study in Education*, *op. cit.*, 91.

³¹ Garrett, *op. cit.*

³² *Graduate Study in Education*, *op. cit.*, 91ff.

Travers and Wallace³³ found that the average grade for two semesters' work in college is a more stable criterion of success in future study in some areas than in others. A correlation coefficient of .53 was found between fall and spring grades in education, and one of .69 was estimated between grades for one whole year and grades for the next year. To secure a stable grade point average³⁴ it was estimated that a period of eight semesters would be required.

Combinations of factors or indexes

Practically all of the writers in the area of prognosis of success in graduate study recommend the use of combinations of factors to predict scholastic success. All recognize the limitations involved in the use of a single criterion upon which to base the prognosis of success in undergraduate or graduate work.

Vaughn³⁵ points out that while manufactured tests and other devices of prognosis help, none can reduce the admission of a student to a routine procedure. Travers³⁶ insists that the desire to learn and environmental factors are important to academic success.

Garrett³⁷ states that when a combination of factors (eg., marks on an intelligence test, marks on an achievement test, and teachers' marks) are used as a basis of predicting success in college, multiple correlation coefficients ranging from .60 to .70 are found. Monroe³⁸ agrees with this in principle but reports higher multiple correlation coefficients ranging from .65 to .81. Diederich³⁹ reports that the University of Chicago has found that marks on simple tests of reading, writing, and thinking have higher correlation coefficients with college marks than anything else.

INTERPRETATION OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

The American Council on Education⁴⁰ provides a very practical

³³ Travers and Wallace, *op. cit.*

³⁴ One which would produce a correlation coefficient of .90 when compared with the grade point average of another period.

³⁵ K. W. Vaughn (Director, The Graduate Record Examinations), "The Graduate Record Examinations," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 7 No. 4 (1947), 745-56.

³⁶ Robert M. W. Travers, "Good Prediction of Scholastic Success," *Education Digest*, 15 (December, 1949), 38-39.

³⁷ Garrett, *op. cit.*

³⁸ Monroe, *op. cit.*

³⁹ Paul B. Diederich, "The Abolition of Subject Requirements for Admission to College," *School Review*, 57 (September, 1949), 346-70.

⁴⁰ *Predicting Success in Professional Schools*, *op. cit.*, 155-62.

interpretation of correlation coefficients. Other interpretations may be secured by consulting almost any textbook on elementary statistics or psychological testing. When institutions have more applicants than they have available positions or adequate facilities, then a more highly selective program of admissions can be developed. But when institutions have adequate facilities to accommodate all applicants—and all applicants are admitted—then there is not much point in using selective devices.

For an example of the practical application of a coefficient of correlation, suppose that an institution was able to accept only one out of two applicants. Suppose that a correlation coefficient of .40 was found between the predictive index and the criterion of success (college marks, for example). Then, if "the same standards of achievement are continued," the percentage of students (of those admitted) who will be above average (in terms of college marks, for example) will be 63.⁴¹ It may be seen, therefore, that accuracy of prediction of academic success depends upon at least three variables. They are (1) the number of applicants from which the students can be selected, (2) the percentage of present students considered satisfactory, and (3) the size of the correlation (validity coefficient) between the predictive index and the criterion of success.⁴²

CURRENT POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF ADMISSIONS

The survey of fifty-one selected colleges and universities reveals a liberal attitude on the part of educators in graduate schools, colleges, and departments concerning admissions. The ways in which this liberal attitude finds expression are described in the following sections.

ADMISSION TO GRADUATE STUDY

Many colleges and universities are aware of the inequalities and differentiation in undergraduate study and marks, and in many cases the only formal, academic requirement to be admitted to graduate study is to hold a four-year bachelor's degree from an accredited institution.⁴³ In some cases if an applicant does not have a "C+" or "B" average during at least some period in his undergraduate study or does not demonstrate any particular competency on an examination

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, 11-12.

⁴² *Ibid.*, 11.

⁴³ From a study of recent statements in letters received from authorized representatives of fifty-one selected colleges and universities.

of some kind,⁴⁴ he is not admitted to graduate study unconditionally but *provisionally*. Some of the institutions which follow this policy are Harvard University, Yale University, University of Chicago, Tulane University, University of Houston, University of Texas, University of Utah, University of New Mexico, Montana State University, University of Oklahoma, State University of Iowa, University of Pennsylvania, University of Florida, University of South Carolina, University of North Carolina, New York University, University of Oregon, University of Michigan, George Peabody College for Teachers, University of Maine, and Purdue University.

Seldom are admission tests required of applicants who possess the standard baccalaureate degree. Some of the institutions which follow this policy are the University of Chicago, University of Missouri, University of Texas, New York University, Ohio State University, University of Oregon, George Peabody College for Teachers, University of California, Harvard University, University of Arkansas, and the University of Florida.

Many colleges and universities recognize that while certain minimum standards should be established for admission, the important consideration is to conserve and train human resources whenever and wherever possible.⁴⁵ They recognize that criteria which are predictive of behavior for a group are not always valid for an individual. They recognize that one of the best criteria for predicting behavior, success, or achievement in graduate study is performance in graduate study during a trial or provisional period. Hence the policy of making admission to graduate study in education fairly easy in order to give the individual an opportunity to demonstrate the quality of work he is capable of doing.

Many state supported institutions believe that since they are supported by tax dollars, any resident of the state who holds a four-year bachelor's degree should be admitted to graduate study, provided he has an acceptable distribution of undergraduate courses. Some of the institutions which follow this policy are the University of Pennsylvania, Indiana University, University of South Dakota, University of Oklahoma, and the University of Texas.

⁴⁴ Usually the Graduate Record Examinations, in whole or in part, National Teachers Examinations, Ohio State Psychological Examination, American Council on Education Psychological Examination, or Miller Analogies Test.

⁴⁵ From a study of recent statements in letters received from authorized representatives of fifty-one selected colleges and universities.

Ordinarily an applicant must be of good character and good health before he may be admitted to graduate study.

ADMISSION TO CANDIDACY FOR A GRADUATE DEGREE

Many institutions make a sharp distinction between admission to graduate study and admission to candidacy for a graduate degree.⁴⁶ The viewpoint held is that admission to graduate study is not the same as admission to candidacy for a graduate degree and that the latter necessitates the meeting of additional requirements beyond those required for admission to graduate study. Some of the schools which make a sharp distinction between admission to graduate study and admission to candidacy for a graduate degree at both the master's and doctor's levels are the State University of Iowa, Michigan State College, Yale University, Harvard University, University of North Carolina, University of South Carolina, University of Florida, University of Texas, Montana State University, University of Utah, University of Oklahoma, University of Chicago, University of Georgia, University of Missouri, University of Wyoming, Ohio State University, University of California, and Purdue University. Nearly all institutions make a sharp distinction between admission to graduate study and admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree.

Outstanding requirements which sometimes must be met before an applicant is admitted to candidacy for a graduate degree are described in the following sections. Specifically, these requirements are

- (1) admission to graduate study,
- (2) the presentation of an acceptable pattern of previous study (sometimes including the possession of a minor or major in the field of specialization),
- (3) the passing of examinations,
- (4) the demonstration of proficiency in (a) the use of English and (b) writing, and
- (5) the actual demonstration of ability to do the quality of work desired.

Presentation of an acceptable pattern of previous study

The survey of fifty-one colleges and universities and other sources⁴⁷ reveal that considerable attention is being given the pattern or dis-

⁴⁶ *Loc. cit.*

⁴⁷ *Graduate Study in Education, op. cit.*, 91-93.

tribution of previous formal course work or experience of applicants for admission to candidacy for a graduate degree. With the entry of the master of education and doctor of education degrees (as professional degrees), emphasis has been placed in some quarters on making sure that the degrees are not given on the basis of formal course work or experience in education alone. Appropriate attention is given to the applicant's academic and experiential background and development in such general education areas as anthropology, psychology, sociology, economics, philosophy, natural science, political science (history, government, and politics), statistics (theory of chance, probability, tests and measurements), research procedures, methods, and techniques, and other desired areas. This practice is operative both prior to and after admission to candidacy.

Possession of a minor (or major) in the field of specialization

Most colleges and universities represented in the study require applicants for admission to candidacy for a graduate degree in education to have at least a minor in the area of graduate specialization. Applicants who are seeking a master's degree are required to have at least a minor in undergraduate work in the area of specialization. Applicants who are seeking a doctor's degree are required to have at least a minor in graduate work (at the master's level) in the area of specialization. Such requirements frequently make the prosecution of undergraduate level work necessary.

Many schools require the applicants to do formal class work to establish a minor in the field of specialization, if they do not have one initially. Some schools, however, permit applicants to establish a minor through comprehensive examinations which are frequently made locally. In other cases either the National Teachers Examinations or The Graduate Record Examinations are required in lieu of a satisfactory undergraduate record.⁴⁸

Passing of examinations

Several institutions use examinations to aid in determining one's qualifications for admission to candidacy for a graduate degree. The University of Pennsylvania uses the Ohio State University Psychological Test, the Co-operative General Cultural Test, and a comprehensive examination in the field of specialization (made locally) as a part of

⁴⁸ *Loc. cit.*

the requirements for admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree. Montana State University uses an objective test of 300 items in education (made locally) for admission to candidacy for the master's degree in education. The University of Utah uses the Co-operative General Culture Test, a local test on course work, and a library project to test English usage and writing ability. The University of North Carolina gives a battery of tests for exploratory and guidance purposes. The University of Florida requires the National Teachers Examinations as an aid in advising applicants, plus supplementary oral or written examinations, if advisable. The University of Georgia, the University of Texas, and the University of North Carolina require the Graduate Record Examinations. North Texas State College requires the Co-operative English Test, the Miller Analogies Test, and a brief test (locally made) in the field of specialization for applicants for admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree in education. The University of Wyoming administers the Miller Analogies Test and Co-operative English Test to students in education. The University of Oregon has been administering the Graduate Record Examinations. Purdue University administers the Ohio State University Psychological Test, a local English test, and in some cases, the Miller Analogies Test. Some institutions require the Graduate Record Examinations or the Miller Analogies Test for applicants who intend to major in psychology, but not for applicants who intend to major in education.

Most institutions require comprehensive, preliminary or qualifying examinations (locally made) in the fields of specialization for applicants for admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree. Some, notably the University of Chicago, require comprehensive examinations covering the general field. Several institutions, notably Harvard University, Yale University, and the University of Chicago, rely on their own examinations (locally made) to determine admission to candidacy for a graduate degree in education and require virtually no standardized or manufactured tests of any kind, except possibly to fulfill foreign language requirements.

Demonstration of proficiency in the use of English and writing

At least one-third of the colleges and universities surveyed—and notably Harvard University, Yale University, and the University of Chicago—evaluate not only the responses of an applicant on an examination but also his proficiency in English usage, grammar, and

sentence structure. It is generally taken for granted that applicants who aspire to do graduate work have an acceptable command of at least the English language, but until applicants demonstrate such competency in examinations or in research reports or papers, admission to candidacy for a graduate degree (and certainly the conferring of a degree) is denied.

Some schools require additional evidence of one's proficiency in the use of the English language (both written and oral) and require the passing of an English test and personal interview (with emphasis on speech and other personal characteristics). Some institutions develop their own English tests, in the light of the over-all objectives of their programs, which not only indicate the applicant's proficiency in the use of English but also indicate the applicant's proficiency in thinking, organizing, and writing.

Actual demonstration of ability

One criterion which is coming to be more widely considered for admission to candidacy for a graduate degree in education is a demonstration of the ability to do graduate work of a desired quality. This concept implies that individuals who have four-year bachelor's degrees and at least average undergraduate records (or in exceptional cases individuals who have no degrees) and who do well in graduate work on a trial or provisional basis may within certain limits be admitted to candidacy for a graduate degree. Usually other requirements besides the demonstration of ability must be fulfilled before an applicant is admitted to candidacy. Some institutions which require demonstration of ability at the graduate level before admission to candidacy for the master's degree is approved are the University of Texas (about twelve semester hours of graduate work), Montana State University (one quarter's work), University of Utah, University of Oklahoma (about twelve semester hours of graduate work), Harvard University, State University of Iowa, Michigan State College (about sixteen credits of graduate work), University of South Carolina (one quarter's work), New York University, University of Missouri, University of Wyoming (at least one quarter's work), University of Oregon, University of California, Purdue University, and the University of Chicago. Nearly all institutions require a demonstration of ability to do the quality of work desired before admission to candidacy for the doctor's degree is approved.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A tentative program of admissions which would be of universal value and application is difficult to develop or recommend. Each institution has its own peculiar problems to face in the matter of admissions. It is believed, however, that there are certain concepts and principles of admission which may be utilized more or less universally. The concepts explored in the preceding sections may be summarized as follows:

1. The primary requirement for admission to graduate study should be the possession of a bachelor's degree. In exceptional cases applicants who do not have a degree should be admitted if it appears that they will be benefited through graduate study.
2. A clear distinction should be made between admission to graduate study and to candidacy for a graduate degree and the requirements thereof. However, graduate study accomplished prior to admission to candidacy should have the same value as if it had been accomplished after admission to candidacy, except in unusual circumstances.
3. Admission to candidacy for a graduate degree should include the following requirements:
 - a. A bachelor's degree or the equivalent in the case of the master's degree; a master's degree or the equivalent in the case of the doctor's degree; and at least a minor or the equivalent in the field of desired specialization in all cases. In exceptional cases a formal degree or a formal minor need not be required.
 - b. An acceptable (broad but yet concrete) pattern of study or experience, with evidence in the form of formal course credits or marks on appropriate tests.
 - c. An examination or examinations to test the applicant's proficiency in (1) English usage, "objective" and written, and (2) clear thought, organization, and writing. These competencies could possibly be demonstrated in the preliminary examination.
 - d. A preliminary or qualifying examination (locally made) covering areas of work which the institution deems fundamental and necessary to acceptable graduate performance at the particular level involved.
 - e. Demonstration in at least one quarter's work at the graduate level of the applicant's ability to do the quality of work desired.

- f. Primarily for guidance purposes the Graduate Record Examinations or the National Teachers' Examinations, in part, for applicants in education. The Ohio State University Psychological Examination or the American Council on Education Psychological Examination are also tests which might be used.
- g. A personal interview with emphasis on acceptable speech and professional and personal characteristics of the applicant.
- h. A medical examination to indicate on the part of the applicant, acceptable physical, emotional, and mental health.

Success of Non-High School Graduate G E D Students in Three Southern Colleges*

JOSEPH C. BLEDSOE

INTRODUCTION

INCREASING interest in the policy of admission to colleges of non-high school graduates has been manifested in the past several years by the number of studies reported in the literature on the experiences of various institutions with this practice. These studies fall logically into two groups: (1) admission of relatively mature persons who for various reasons did not attend or failed to complete high school, and (2) accelerated students who were admitted to colleges by special arrangement prior to completion of high school. Recently, the Ford Foundation has stimulated interest in the policy of admission of selected younger non-high school graduates with grants to several institutions for this purpose from its Fund for the Advancement of Education.¹ Studies reported by Detchen² in 1939, Dammon³ in 1944, and Berg and Larsen⁴ in 1945 have uniformly indicated that the practice of admitting carefully selected (typically superior) younger students has been highly successful in terms of scholastic performance of these students.

The results of the practice of admitting older students, however, have not been so clear and unilateral. Kronenberg⁵ in 1935 and Bent⁶

* The study herein reported is abstracted from the writer's doctoral dissertation entitled "An Evaluation of the General Educational Development Tests" completed in 1952 at George Peabody College for Teachers. Grateful acknowledgement is herein extended to Dr. William H. Vaughan, the writer's major professor, and to the admissions officers of the three institutions concerned in the study for their co-operation and courtesies.

¹ "Ford Millions for Education," *School Review*, LIX (1951), 316-20.

² Lily Detchen, "College Education without High School Graduation," *School Review*, XLVII (1939), 182-91.

³ C. H. Dammon, "Admission without High School Graduation," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIX (1944), 471-85.

⁴ Irwin A. Berg and Robert P. Larsen, "A Comparative Study of Students Entering College One or More Semesters Before Graduation from High School," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXIX (1945), 33-40.

⁵ Henry H. Kronenberg, "Validity of Curriculum Requirements for Admission to the General College of the University of Minnesota" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1935).

⁶ Rudyard K. Bent, "Scholastic Records of Non-High School Graduates Entering the University of Arkansas," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (1946), 108-15.

in 1946 reported results generally favorable to the practice with pre-war, non-veteran students at the Universities of Minnesota and Arkansas, respectively. With the increase of student populations in the postwar period and the provision, by the United States Armed Forces Institute and the American Council on Education, of the Tests of General Educational Development as a means of demonstrating competence in areas of general education in lieu of formal high school work have come a number of studies which throw additional light on this problem. Roeber,⁷ Putman,⁸ Milligan and others,⁹ and Bledsoe¹⁰ have reported results generally favorable to this practice while Hartung,¹¹ Mumma,¹² and Andrew¹³ have submitted findings which might be termed essentially negative. Studies by Dixon¹⁴ and Johnston¹⁵ reported results slightly less favorable for the non-graduate as compared with the graduate of high school but the differences in performance were slight and inconclusive.

The present study was directly concerned with an evaluation of the high school level Tests of General Educational Development as an admissions instrument for non-high school graduates admitted to three Southern colleges.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE GROUP

This investigation had the following specific objectives:

⁷ Edward C. Roeber, "The G E D Tests as a Measure of College Aptitude," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXIX (1950), 40-41 +.

⁸ Phil H. Putman, "Scholastic Achievement of G E D Students at the Vanport (Oregon) Extension Center," *School and Society*, LXVI (1947), 161-63.

⁹ E. E. Milligan, L. J. Lins, and Kenneth Little, "The Success of Non-High School Graduates in Degree Programs at the University of Wisconsin," *School and Society*, LXVII (1948), 27-29.

¹⁰ Alma H. Preinkert, "Reported to Us," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, XXVII (1951), 145.

¹¹ Arthur W. Hartung, "The Case of the G E D Student," *School and Society*, LXVII (1948), 137-38.

¹² Richard A. Mumma, "The College Record of Students Admitted on the Basis of G E D Tests," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, XXVI (1950), 79-87.

¹³ Dean C. Andrew, "A Comparative Study of the Academic Achievement of High School Graduates and Non-Graduates," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, XXVII (1950), 50-55.

¹⁴ Paul T. Dixon, "Scholastic Achievement of Students Admitted to the University of Missouri on the Basis of Performance on Tests of General Educational Development" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, University of Missouri, 1948).

¹⁵ William C. Johnston, "The Scholastic Achievement of Veterans Admitted to the Municipal University of Wichita under the Provisions of the General Educational Development Testing Program" (unpublished Master's thesis, Municipal University of Wichita, 1948).

1. To determine the extent to which non-high school graduates admitted to three Southern higher institutions on the basis of performance on the high school level G E D Tests have been successful in college, as measured by marks received and by completion of the prescribed program for a degree.
2. To determine the extent to which scores on the high school level G E D Tests predict scholastic achievement of non-high school graduates.
3. To ascertain for this group of (579) non-high school graduates the relationship between grade-point average and degree status and such variables as age at time of entrance and number of high school units presented upon admission.

The subjects of the investigation were 579 students admitted to three Southern colleges on the basis of scores on the high school level G E D Tests, distributed as follows among the three institutions: The University of Tennessee (Knoxville), 343; The University of Georgia (Athens), 107; and Middle Tennessee State College (Murfreesboro), 129. Students were admitted who scored a minimum standard score of 35 or above on all subtests *or* an average standard score of 45 or above. This criterion was that recommended by the American Council on Education for certification of high school equivalency. Data gathered on these subjects consisted of age at time of entrance, number of high school units earned, standard scores on each of the subtests and the total (average of the five subtests) score of the high school level G E D Tests, college of enrollment (except for Middle Tennessee State College students), number of quarter hours for which enrolled, number of quarter hours passed, number of honor points earned, honor-point ratio (honor points earned divided by quarter hours passed), type and date of degree received (where applicable), and whether or not the student was actively enrolled in the Fall Quarter of 1951.

In order to provide a basis for comparison, data were obtained on the degree status (as of Fall of 1951) of members of the entering freshman class of September, 1946 at two of the institutions (University of Georgia and Middle Tennessee State College). An estimate of the percentage of entering freshmen who graduate from the University of Tennessee was also obtained.

Most of these data were obtained in the offices of the Registrar or the Dean of Admissions at the various institutions; some test data were obtained at the Veterans Guidance Center, University of Georgia.

Data obtained were coded and punched on Standard International Business Machines tabulating cards and these cards were processed through the sorting and counting machine. Statistical procedures employed consisted of percentages, measures of central tendency and variability, measures of linear and non-linear correlation, and tests of significance.

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The 579 non-high school graduates admitted to college on the basis of G E D Test performance were classified in September, 1951 as follows: "degree," 116 (20 per cent); "non-degree, inactive" (drop-outs and transfer students), 364 (63 per cent); and still actively enrolled, 99 (17 per cent). By institutions, the percentages of students in the categories of degree, non-degree, and active were respectively as follows: Middle Tennessee State College, 24, 46, and 30; University of Georgia, 27, 56, and 17; University of Tennessee, 17, 71, and 12. Comparative figures on the percentage of the Fall Quarter 1946 freshman classes subsequently graduating were, at Middle Tennessee State College, 31 per cent, and at the University of Georgia, 34 per cent. The Dean of Admissions of the University of Tennessee has estimated that 42 per cent of entering freshmen at that institution obtain degrees. The proportion of students now actively enrolled who subsequently graduate is of course not known; it seems likely, however, that most of this group will be successful (see later discussion on this point). Thus, it appears that at two of these institutions students admitted by test performance have completed college in proportions about the same as those who entered regularly.

These students were enrolled in all divisions offering work at the Knoxville and Athens campuses of the state universities except the School of Veterinary Medicine (University of Georgia). Five schools, however, accounted for 96 per cent of the enrollment of these students in the two state universities; these were, in order of frequency, Business Administration (37.6 per cent), Liberal Arts (26.7 per cent), Agriculture (12.6 per cent), Engineering (University of Tennessee only, 10.9 per cent), and Education (8.0 per cent). Of schools having enough students enrolled to warrant generalization, the smallest percentage of graduates (to number enrolled) came from the College of Engineering, with largest percentages graduating from the Colleges of Agriculture, Business Administration, and Education.

For this sample, the amount of high school credit earned bears little

relationship to success in college, as determined by attainment of a degree. The only exception is in the instance of those students who had not previously attended high school, of whom were graduated a much smaller percentage than of those who had attended but had not completed high school.

Successful (i.e. "degree") students were significantly (beyond the 1 per cent level of confidence) older on the average than were those who dropped out before graduation. Mean age of "degree" students at matriculation was 24.4 years; mean age of "non-degree" students was 22.8 years. These students were obviously older at time of entrance than students of typical college freshman classes.

Students obtaining degrees presented a mean of 8.6 units of high school work at entrance; this was one unit more than the average number submitted by unsuccessful students. This difference was significant at the 2 per cent level of confidence.

Successful students did uniformly better on all the G E D subtests than did the "drop-outs"; all differences were significant at the 1 per cent level of confidence except in the case of the Social Studies test. With respect to relative performance on the various tests, students scored highest in Natural Sciences, followed by Social Studies, Mathematics, and Literature, in which average performance was about the same, and made the poorest showing in the test on English Expression.

Most of the students who dropped out did so relatively early; median number of quarter hours earned by this group was 28, indicating about two quarters of residence. Twelve students in this group completed more than 140 quarter hours, suggesting the possibilities either that they may have completed their work at other institutions or that they may complete their degree programs at the subject institution. Students still actively enrolled had completed in September, 1951 a median of 116 quarter hours of work (with a quartile deviation of 42 hours) indicating that many are well on their way to completing their programs.

Median honor-point ratio for successful ("degree") students was 2.40 (in a scale in which 2.00 represents a grade of "C" and 3.00 represents a grade of "B"); "non-degree" students and students still actively enrolled had median honor-point ratios of 1.48 and 2.28 respectively. Twelve per cent of the successful students had averages of "B" (3.00 and above) or better, and a few students made outstanding (*cum laude*) records.

With respect to relative achievement among the several major divisions of the two state universities and the Middle Tennessee State College, the median honor-point ratios of schools having more than ten students ranked in the following order, from highest to lowest: Education students, followed by those enrolled in Agriculture, at Middle Tennessee State College, in Business Administration, in Liberal Arts, and in Engineering.

With respect to performance on the G E D Tests, students enrolled in Engineering performed highest on the average, followed in order by those enrolled in Liberal Arts, in Business Administration, at Middle Tennessee, in Agriculture, and in Education. Differences among the various divisions were slight, however, and significance has not been determined.

Table I presents intercorrelations (zero-order Pearson product-moment correlations) between the factors of age at entrance, number of high school units offered, G E D subtest scores, and G E D Total score. Age (at entrance) does not appear to be significantly related

TABLE I
INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN AGE AT ENTRANCE, NUMBER OF
HIGH SCHOOL UNITS, G E D SUBTEST SCORES AND TOTAL
SCORE FOR 579 NON-HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
ADMITTED TO COLLEGE ON BASIS OF
G E D TEST PERFORMANCE

Factor	Age at Entrance	No. of H.S. Units	G E D I	G E D II	G E D III	G E D IV
No. H.S. Units	-.176					
G E D I (Expression)	.125	.109				
G E D II (Social Studies)	.098	.108	.462			
G E D III (Nat. Science)	.093	.165	.460	.540		
G E D IV (Lit. Materials)	.082	.133	.454	.638	.559	
G E D V (Mathematics)	.107	.147	.386	.488	.612	.346
Total G E D Score	.200	.176				
"r" significant at 5% level:	.088					
"r" significant at 1% level:	.115					

TABLE II
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION AND CORRELATION RATIOS OF
SEVERAL FACTORS WITH HONOR-POINT RATIOS OF
STUDENTS ADMITTED ON THE BASIS OF
G E D TEST PERFORMANCE

Factor (N = 515)	Coefficient of Correlation "r"	Correlation Ratio "n"	Chi-square test of linearity χ^2 P
Age at Entrance	.232		
Number of H.S. Units	.090		
GED I (Expression)	.283	.364	30.38 <.01 Non-linear
GED II (Social Studies)	.256	.275	5.38 .85 Linear
GED III (Natural Sciences)	.176	.287	28.17 <.01 Non-linear
GED IV (Liter. Materials)	.255	.311	17.66 .05 Non-linear
GED V (Mathematics)	.291	.356	24.24 <.01 Non-linear
GED Total score	.314	.473	81.08 <.01 Non-linear

to performance on the individual G E D Tests, but is slightly related positively (.20) to the total G E D score; thus older students tend to make slightly higher scores. A slight negative relationship (−.176) between age at entrance and the number of high school units presented indicates that older students had generally less formal high school work. There was a very low positive relationship between the number of high school units and the various G E D Tests; highest relationship was with total score.

Intercorrelations among the high school level G E D Tests range from .346 (for Literature and Mathematics) to .638 (for Social Studies and Literature). Intercorrelations are highest in the instances of the three tests involving interpretations of readings in selected fields, and are lowest in the case of mathematics and the field of English (literature and expression).

Table II presents coefficients of correlation and correlation ratios (eta) of the G E D subtests and total score with honor-point ratio, and coefficients of correlation of age and high school units with honor-point ratio. The correlation of .23 between age and HPR indicates a slight tendency for older students to make better grades. There ap-

pears to be very little relationship between the number of high school units offered and scholarship.

Also given in Table II is the chi-square test of linearity. Of the various relationships involving the G E D test scores, the total score appears to be the best predictor of scholastic performance. Of the subtests, the Mathematics and Expression tests bear the closest relationship in this sample to honor-point ratio. The correlation ratios of four of the five subtests and of the total score are sufficiently greater than the correlation coefficients to indicate that the true relationships are linear. Of all the measures reported, only the correlation ratio of the G E D total score with honor-point ratio is high enough (.473) to suggest fairly adequate predictive power. Two influences may have tended to restrict the magnitude of these correlations, viz., the low reliability of the criterion of marks received in course work and the restriction in range brought about by a marking system with only five intervals such as A, B, C, D, and F. Discrimination among students who have the same grade is necessarily limited. The grade C may be appropriately assigned to many students, but in so doing it is impossible to tell which ones are slightly above D and which ones just below B.

When the mean marks of the arrays of test scores were plotted, it was discovered that the source of the correlation was in the upper end of the distribution. That is to say, it was not until test scores of 55 and above were reached that appreciable differences in marks received by the lower-scoring students as compared with higher-scoring students were noted. Since students had been admitted on the basis of test scores regarded as equivalent to high school graduation, it was considered by the researcher that by raising the cutting score a more accurate prediction might be made. This step would be comparable to accepting students in the upper portions of their graduating classes. Thus, making the cutting score a standard score of 55 would be roughly equivalent to accepting the upper one-fourth (approximately) of the class. Using scores of 55 and above as "successful" scores on the total test battery and below 55 as "failing", and "degree" and "non-degree, drop-out" as the other (criterion) variable, the researcher computed the tetrachoric coefficient of correlation as .52. This finding would suggest the advisability of employing the G E D test battery more accurately by making the minimum score for admission higher than the minimum score for high school equivalency certification.

An Analysis and Comparison of the Academic Adjustment and Problems of Probation Students and Honor Students

WILLIAM H. BROWN

THE PROBLEM

THIS STUDY was undertaken to determine whether the academic adjustment and problems of honor students were significantly different from those of probation students. The problem of the study was significant at North Carolina College because 461 students or 37.4 per cent of all undergraduates in the College were probation students while only 317 students or 23.8 per cent of all undergraduates were on the honor roll. Moreover, 84 per cent of the probation students, but only 45 per cent of the honor students, were enrolled in the freshman or sophomore classes. Since all probation students are potential drop-outs, the faculty and administration of the College were interested in discovering the extent to which factors, other than mental ability, might be influencing the academic success of students.

It is known that high mental ability does not necessarily guarantee academic success in college, since some students who are no better than average in aptitude for college work earn academic records that are above average and since many intellectually superior students have inferior academic records. Such inconsistencies are often related to certain attitudes, problems, habits, and activities which influence scholarship. It is assumed, therefore, that many problems relating to the academic adjustment of students may be imposed by a college environment, as the students conceive it; and that a faculty and administrative officers, working together, can modify either the college environment or the student's conception of it in the interest of reducing the impact of the student's problems on his academic adjustment.

THE SUBJECTS

The subjects used in the study were 154 probation students and an equal number of honor students. The probation students were selected from the probation list for the second quarter of the school year 1951-52. All students on this list had grade point averages of less

than one. The honor students were selected from the honor roll prepared by the Registrar for the same quarter. Percentagewise, the separate samples conformed roughly to the distribution of probation and honor students by classes in the total enrollment.

The I.Q. ranges for probation and honor students were 71—110 and 71—130 respectively, with medians at 92.8 and 97.9 respectively. The distribution of I.Q.'s for the probation group was sharply skewed toward lower scores, while that for the honor group was slightly skewed in the same direction. The ranges in cumulative averages were $-.600$ — 1.00 and 1.10 — 3.00 for probation and honor students respectively, with medians at .87 and 1.7 respectively. The mean I.Q.'s were 89.7 and 98.2 for probation and honor students respectively. Although the difference between the mean I.Q.'s was significant, the I.Q. ranges overlapped. Obviously, I.Q. alone cannot be used to predict success or failure in college for many students in the sample. Since intelligence quotients do not constitute a detailed analysis of general and specific abilities, their use in solving the learning difficulties of students is limited.

THE METHODS

The basic data for this study were obtained through the administration of the Borow Inventory of Academic Adjustment¹ and the Mooney Problem Checklist.² Supplementary information such as cumulative averages, intelligence quotients, enrollment data, and curricula pursued by students were obtained from official college records.

The Borow Inventory consists of ninety questions which the student may answer "yes," "no", or "uncertain." The responses are summarized in six categories: (1) Curricular Adjustment, (2) Maturity of Goals and Level of Aspiration, (3) Personal Efficiency in Use of Time, (4) Study Skills and Practices, (5) Mental Health, and (6) Personal Relations with Faculty Associates. Weights assigned to the different responses facilitate scoring and the student's adjustment is indicated by his total score. Scores for each of the six categories permit a diagnosis of the adjustment of the student.

The Mooney Problem Checklist consists of 330 items, 30 in each

¹ Henry Borow, *The College Inventory of Academic Adjustment*, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1949.

² Ross L. Mooney, *Mooney Problem Checklist*, (College form) New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1950.

of 11 categories. The subjects were directed to check those items which suggested problems, difficulties, worries, or troubles that concerned them. Checked items were counted and summarized under the following categories: (1) Health and Physical Development, (2) Finances, Living Conditions and Employment, (3) Social and Recreational Activities, (4) Social Psychological Relations, (5) Personal Psychological Relations, (6) Courtship, Sex, and Marriage, (7) Home and Family, (8) Morals and Religion, (9) Adjustment to College Work, (10) The Future: Vocational and Educational, and (11) Curriculum and Teaching Procedure.

Since the study was concerned mainly with group results, the individual scores, or counts of problems, were summarized separately for probation and honor students. The significance of differences between means for each category was determined through use of Fisher's "t". Item analyses were run on each category and Chi Square tests of homogeneity were used to determine whether or not differences between item responses of the two groups were significant.

FINDINGS RELATIVE TO ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

The scores made by probation and honor students on the Borow Inventory of College Adjustment are given in Table I. The table shows that t-ratios greater than 2.5 were obtained for differences between the means for four scores: Total Adjustment, Curricular Adjustment, Use of Time, and Study Skills. A t-ratio of this order is significant at the one per cent level and indicates a real difference. Since the means for honor students were consistently higher than

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF SCORES MADE BY PROBATION STUDENTS AND
HONOR STUDENTS ON COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT
INVENTORY, BY CATEGORIES

	Probation Students			Honor Students			t_m
	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	
1 Total Adjustment	36-175	105	23	50-169	117	26	4.1*
2 Curricular Adjustment	4-24	13.2	4.8	3-26	15.4	4.8	4.0*
3 Maturity of Goals	7-28	19.4	4.6	6-29	20.7	4.8	2.45
4 Use of Time	2-32	19.9	4.5	8-34	21.4	5.4	2.67*
5 Study Skills	1-42	21.8	7.6	1-40	25.6	7.8	4.36*
6 Mental Health	2-28	14.7	6.5	1-40	15.5	5.9	1.13
7 Relations with Faculty	3-26	15.7	5.2	2-36	16.3	5.6	.97

* Categories for which significant differences in means were found.

those for probation students in the four categories mentioned above, it can be said with reasonable confidence that the honor students, as a group, were generally better adjusted than the probation students on the attributes measured by this inventory. Moreover, the honor group differed significantly from the probation group on at least three attributes: Curricular Adjustment, Use of Time, and Study Skills. Item analyses tended to highlight factors influencing these differences.

Curricular Adjustment

The curricular adjustment category appraised the student's expressed satisfaction with college routine in general and with his chosen curriculum in particular. It tried to discover whether the student liked his work, enjoyed studying, and deemed it wise to continue in college. It tried also to determine whether he felt he had chosen his curriculum wisely, was content with his choice, and found his courses interesting, purposeful, meaningfully related to one another, and reasonable in their demands upon his time and effort.³ The analysis of responses in this category revealed a consensus in both groups that careful attention had been given by the student to his choice of curriculum, that course material was valuable, that courses were sufficiently related, and that college regulations were not too rigid. Both groups liked college work but the consensus of probation students on this matter was only 55 per cent while that among honor students was 71 per cent. Both groups agreed that certain required courses were uninteresting and 80 per cent of the combined groups felt that many courses made unreasonable demands on the student's time. Although most of the students felt that college work was worth continuing, 25 per cent of the probation students and 9 per cent of the honor students had considered dropping out.

Chi square tests of homogeneity between the responses of the two groups revealed two important differences between probation and honor students: (1) the honor students enjoyed study activities more than the probation students, and (2) probation students found the transition from high school to college more difficult than did honor students.

Study Skills

This category dealt with the student's characteristic study behavior

³ Manual for the College Inventory of Academic Adjustment, p. 2.

at his desk and in the classroom. It surveyed the conditions under which he attempted to learn and assessed the student's professed mastery of sound study techniques. In general, neither the probation nor the honor students seemed to enter a study situation with sufficient readiness to learn. Fifty-two per cent of all students had difficulty settling down to study; about half of both groups had a tendency to dawdle over books; 70 per cent attempted to study with a radio going or other persons talking in the same room; about half of the students in both groups were easily distracted; and 77 per cent tended to doze or let their minds wander in class or at the study table.

The most outstanding differences between the two groups related to the mastery of certain study skills. Honor students more often than probation students planned an amount of work to be accomplished when they sat down to study; 35 per cent of the probation students and 19 per cent of the honor students had trouble with outlining and notetaking; 56 per cent of the probation students and 36 per cent of the honor students had difficulty remembering what they read; 35 per cent of the probation students and 19 per cent of the honor students had trouble picking out important points in an assignment; 72 per cent of the probation students and 56 per cent of the honor students had to re-read an assignment several times to get the meaning; and 40 per cent of the probation students against 27 per cent of the honor students had long and wasteful study sessions. These difficulties suggest a wide range of remedial measures which might be instituted by the college.

Personal Efficiency: Planning and Use of Time

The effectiveness with which the student scheduled and carried out his daily activities was investigated by this category. The aim was to learn whether or not the student felt that he planned his routine activities well and made profitable use of his time. The main causes for inefficiency seemed to stem from difficulty in planning time for study. The probation students were consistently less efficient on each item than the honor group. Sixty-seven per cent of the combined groups experienced difficulty in scheduling time for study and 60 per cent were not able to anticipate and plan work in advance. Whether assignments are of the long-term or day-by-day type would make a difference in the interpretation of difficulties which students apparently experience in anticipating and planning work in advance.

FINDINGS RELATIVE TO PROBLEMS

Analyses and comparisons of the problems of probation students and honor students were made at three different levels. In general, the data on problems not only supported the findings on academic adjustment but suggested a variety of factors which may be influencing the academic adjustment of students. The first level of analysis

TABLE II
COMPARISON OF PROBLEMS OF PROBATION STUDENTS
AND HONOR STUDENTS BY CATEGORIES

Problem Categories	Probation Students			Honor Students			t_m
	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	
1 Adjustment to College	0-26	9.6	5.9	0-23	7.0	5.1	4.19*
2 Curriculum and Teaching	0-20	6.5	4.5	0-26	5.8	4.2	1.42
3 Social and Recreational	0-26	7.3	3.3	0-26	6.4	3.8	2.25
4 Personal Psychological Relations	0-23	6.9	4.6	0-23	4.9	3.0	4.65*
5 Health and Physical Development	0-13	5.2	3.3	0-17	4.3	3.3	2.06
6 Future (Voc. and Ed.)	0-13	4.5	3.2	0-20	4.0	3.4	1.35
7 Finances, Living and Employment	0-15	4.3	3.3	0-23	4.3	3.9	0.00
8 Courtship, sex, marriage	0-15	4.1	3.4	0-20	3.9	3.3	.54
9 Social Psychological Relations	0-23	4.9	3.3	0-26	4.5	3.7	2.17
10 Morals and Religion	0-13	3.3	3.1	0-14	3.3	2.8	0.00
11 Home and Family	0-12	1.7	2.6	0-11	2.3	2.0	2.30
12 Total No. of Problems	6-195	58.2	32.0	4-175	49.4	30.5	2.51*

* Indicates that difference between means is statistically significant at or below the 1% level.

was concerned with the total number of problems checked on the Mooney Problem Checklist. At the second level, analyses and comparisons were based on a count of problems checked in eleven different categories of the checklist. At the third level, item analyses were made to determine common problems of students and specific problems accounting for differences between probation and honor students.

Table II gives a numerical summary of the problems of probation and honor students at the first two levels of analysis.

It can be seen from the table that probation students differed significantly from honor students on the total number of problems checked. Probation students registered an average of 58.2 problems while honor students registered an average of 49.4 problems. Other

measures of central tendency confirmed this difference as real and significant.

At the second level of analysis, the mean number of problems registered by probation students in each of the eleven categories was equal to or consistently higher than the mean for honor students. In two categories, adjustment to college work and personal psychological relations, a significant difference existed between the problems of probation students and honor students. Probation students not only registered more problems relating to adjustment to college work but also gave evidence of poorer personal psychological relations than honor students. Probation students registered an average of 9.6 problems in the area of adjustment to college work against 7.0 problems registered by honor students. In the area of personal psychological relations, probation students registered an average of 6.9 problems per student against 4.9 for honor students.

At the third level of analysis, the problem counts for probation students were generally higher than those for honor students on the majority of the problems checked. On eight problems the count was significantly higher for probation students. These eight problems were: getting low grades, fearing failure in college, not knowing how to study effectively, forced to take courses that are uninteresting, obtained grades that do not measure ability fairly, not taking things seriously enough, failing in many things tried, and failure to reach goals. These differences have been discussed and suggestions have been offered for reducing the impact of these problems on the students' academic achievement.

At the third level, also, 122 different problems that were common to 20 per cent or more of the same group were isolated in each area. The first five areas, in terms of prevalence of common problems, were personal psychological relations (19 problems), adjustment to college work (18 problems), social recreational activities (17 problems), curriculum and teaching procedures (13 problems), and health and physical development (12 problems). General suggestions were made for approaching common problems.

The results of the study indicate that the problems of students bear a direct relationship to their effectiveness in academic work. The analyses used in the study were concerned largely with central tendencies of groups but the patterns of problems among individual students afford an unusual opportunity for further study. Further

study is needed also of the difficulties encountered by students as they make the transition from high school to North Carolina College, of conditions under which students attempt to study in the college, and of the psychological problems of students generally. One does not have to wonder whether or not activities designed to reduce problems will be well received by students. Certain responses of students indicate their interest in getting help on problems listed as well as their desire to obtain this help from the faculty. Ninety-one per cent of all subjects felt that the items marked gave a well-rounded picture of their problems, 90 per cent enjoyed filling out the list and thought it worthwhile, 83 per cent expressed a desire to talk with someone on the staff about problems checked, and 26 students mentioned the names of persons with whom they would like to talk. However, only 39 per cent of the students felt that they knew a particular person with whom they would like to have these talks.

Thus, students indicated their recognized and active concerns. They have indicated a desire for help from the faculty. Although other problems are likely to develop as students attempt to adjust to college life, the data in this study reveal the level at which activities may be started with a prospect for immediate response from students.

Human Relations Pitfalls for the Novice Administrator

LYNN H. DRAPER AND EDWARD J. MORTOLA

AMERICAN higher education tends to impose administrative responsibility upon many who have not been trained for it.

On the academic side, Presidents, Deans and Department Heads may be chosen for eminence in teaching or research, for distinction in professional writing or simply in recognition of seniority on the faculty combined with generally satisfactory service to the institution. Personnel officers may be selected from the ranks of the faculty or through the placement offices of the graduate schools of education and psychology.

Because of this recruitment practice, the person in a position of responsibility in a college or university, regardless of age or level of responsibility, may be a novice at the work of administration.

Time alone would lessen the significance of this fact were it not also true that there is a high rate of turnover in these administrative positions with the same factors of selection repeated with almost accelerating frequency.

To some extent, this turnover may be explained by the phenomenon which has been described, since professional eminence and seniority are often the bases for selection and, for many, retirement follows early after appointment to administrative positions.

Not all of the job mobility which can be observed may be attributed to retirement, however. Some men, achieving distinction at a relatively early age and being rewarded with administrative responsibilities, voluntarily relinquish these to turn (or return) to endeavors they find more rewarding. Not uncommonly do Deans ask to be relieved of administrative duties to devote full time to teaching and research, and recent newspaper releases report the transfers of college presidents to positions in government service and with foundations and educational associations. Other young men, still developing in the field of educational administration, yield to the lure of the higher salaries in industry which they may have spurned at the threshold of their professional careers.

Our analysis must lead us to conclude, therefore, that the administrative function in institutions of higher learning, although so widely attractive, frequently fails to supply the personal and professional satisfactions which hold men for long periods of time.

It would be unrealistic not to mention, also, the fact that many who leave administration are assisted in their decisions to do so by their superiors who have found that the qualities which give distinction in teaching and research do not necessarily produce equally outstanding performance in administrative work.

It is to the human relations aspects of administration that most failures and disappointments may be traced. Although it is difficult to isolate completely the human relations factors from the other elements of managerial skill, Dr. Bigelow of Columbia University gives us a frame of reference in his concept of "evocative behavior"—the ability to evoke co-operative responses from one's subordinates and colleagues. It is not lack of professional competence or even inadequate salaries that discourages administrators so much as it is the inability to execute plans, to secure co-operation, and to win administrative support for desired changes and improvements. When administrators must be replaced, it is more often for lack of productivity or inability to inspire confidence than for indolence or lack of technical skill.

By way of introduction to the discussion of certain pitfalls in human relations to which novice administrators are particularly subject, it seems well to consider a number of environmental difficulties which must be overcome.

J. George Frederick,¹ in identifying six periods in the evolution of the American executive, discusses the decline of "experience" as a major executive virtue and points out that industry has found that executives are interchangeable, that certain bankers could often more successfully reorganize and operate railroads, steel companies and other industries than could older men, fully experienced in the business. The skill, he implies, lies not in a knowledge of steel or engines, but in a different attitude toward change, a "research spirit," a concept of the executive as a teacher, in short, in human relations skills rather than in ability to conserve and enlarge capital for the principal aim of increased production.

For the executive in education, or any other field, age or experience

¹ Frederick, J. George, Ed., *For Top Executives Only*, The Business Bourse, N.Y., 1936, p. 13.

alone are far less important qualifications than skill in working with people to secure their co-operative efforts toward mutually-selected ends. The academic life may often fail to develop such skills. Logan Wilson² points out that the predominant effect of the training and professional development of academic men is to develop individualism rather than an inclination toward the skill in co-operation and collaborative behavior which is essential for administrative success.

Roethlisberger's³ rather cynical discussion of men "who theorize about, but do not practice" co-operative behavior gives special emphasis to these hindrances to successful administration. It is in this passage that he speaks of "men who have never thought in terms of administrative context, who never acted and made decisions under the burden of responsibility, who have not been interested in seeking simple uniformities in co-operative phenomena, who tend to indulge in large abstractions, noble sentiments or great affairs and whose theories are not relevant to concrete practice."

While it is possible that but a few administrators chosen from the academic life may be so characterized, it is none the less true that the majority are relatively unused to business routines and the techniques of making these routines challenging and interesting to staff personnel and thereby of maximum value in achieving the ends for which the routines exist. It is in this aspect of supervision that many novice administrators find themselves at a loss.

Further, academic men, associating primarily with other academic men, tend to find themselves intolerant of or at least unfamiliar with the habits and thought patterns of persons whose interests may be on a different intellectual plane. Skill in dealing with such people is essential, however, to administrative success, since it is through these that much of the supporting detail for "large ideas and great affairs" must be accomplished. To the extent then that the academic man is limited by the cultural milieu from which he emerges, the possibility exists that he may be poorly equipped for administrative responsibilities. His success is dependent less upon his experience than upon his aptitudes, his willingness and ability to learn, and the availability of advice and assistance.

We turn now to a consideration of some of the pitfalls in human

² Wilson, Logan, *The Academic Man*, Oxford University Press, London, 1942 p. 27ff.

³ Roethlisberger, Fritz J., *Management and Morale*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1944, p. 162.

relations for which the novice administrator must be on the watch, and offer a few suggestions for avoiding them. In part, they may be avoided by the novice administrator himself if he is alert and willing and able to analyze himself and his work and to make necessary adjustments.

In larger part, however, the avoidance of these pitfalls is the responsibility of senior administrators who have the opportunity for teaching the skills which they themselves have learned rather than simply to give up if the appointment initially proves to be disappointing.

The remaining comments will deal first with the administrator himself, his role as a leader, and his effectiveness as a person. Following will be discussions of the administrator in his relations with his subordinates, then with his colleagues, and finally with his superiors.

HUMAN RELATIONS PITFALLS RELATING TO THE ADMINISTRATOR HIMSELF

Many new administrators, particularly the young men, fail through an inability to adopt the role which their new position forces upon them. Some find themselves unable to make the transition from carefree boyishness of appearance, manner and associations, to the maturity of bearing and disposition that are necessary to inspire confidence in spite of a youthful appearance. While conservative dress and sober manner can certainly be overdone, certain American stereotypes of executives exist and must be accepted and conformed with. In education, perhaps more than in business, an administrative officer represents a part of the college tradition and stereotypes of what students, faculty and parents expect are to be cherished and capitalized upon. Tradition has endowed the Dean of Men, for example, with a halo that helps to draw students to him and the new Dean will do well to attempt insofar as possible to meet the specifications imposed by that halo. Certainly students, faculty and professional associates will form impressions from the appearance and manner of the new administrator that may either make or break him.

Role and status become particular areas of concern where the executive has risen from the ranks. It may require a special effort to change from associate to supervisor without ill effects. The faculty member for instance, who becomes Chairman of the Department may soon find it impossible to maintain the same social relationships

he has enjoyed and not be accused of favoritism in making promotions or assigning class schedules.

The administrator who rises from the ranks may tend to have more trouble than would a stranger in avoiding the disapproval of some staff members. The novice must be aware that disciplinary measures are sometimes necessary and that some decisions will inevitably incur displeasure. The executive who gives first attention to his personal needs to remain popular is certain to have trouble.⁴

In this area, as in others, the executive must develop his fullest capacities for tact and self-control. He must be aware of the best principles of mental and physical hygiene to enable him to work long hours with efficiency and vitality and yet remain calm and self-possessed.

Any administrator must develop the ability to assume responsibility and make decisions without undue strain.⁵ The inexperienced executive may be tempted to postpone decisions and then find suddenly that he has a crisis on his hands, or on the other hand, he may tend to refer all questions to his superiors for decision. The resulting delays and disorganization increase the strain of work and render the executive of less than maximum aid to his superiors.

Discouragement in the face of criticism is a danger to be avoided. Correction and suggestions must be taken impersonally and used constructively for self-improvement. The ability to do this is indicative of self-assurance and security in one's position.

The executive will find that a chief responsibility and often a problem area for him is the necessity for carrying new plans and projects through to completion. Ambitious projects, conceived in the enthusiasm of a new position, all too frequently become mired in the morass of detail and routine and never achieve completion. It is wise for the new administrator to postpone radical changes and ambitious projects until it is possible to understand the work load of routine procedures to be accomplished, and then to gear new projects into this routine.

Another major problem for administrators lies in the conflict between self-interest and responsibility to the job. Promotion and professional advancement in education is far more likely to result

⁴ Urwick, Luther, *Elements of Administration*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1943, p. 39.

⁵ Frederick, J. George, *op. cit.*, p. 119.

from fame in professional writing or the acquisition of degrees than from skill in handling routine duties. The desire to continue professional training or to produce material for publication may well tempt an aspiring administrator to give first attention to personal ambitions rather than to the responsibilities of his position. A balance must be achieved whereby the interests of the institution are not neglected and yet room is left for personal growth and advancement.

In summary it may be said that the novice administrator will be of maximum service to his institution and find the greatest personal satisfaction if he approaches his tasks with a sincere knowledge of his ability to do the job competently and with pride in his position, coupled with faith in its importance and an honest desire to serve faithfully and well.

HUMAN RELATIONS PITFALLS IN THE SUPERVISION OF SUBORDINATES

Much has been written to aid the administrator in his problems of supervising those assigned to him, and yet it is in this area that much difficulty may be experienced. As has been pointed out above, the typical academic man is foreign to business routines, and the direction of the work of a staff of subordinates may prove to be an entirely unfamiliar area of responsibility.

The realization of the amount of time that active and constructive supervision requires often comes as a startling revelation to an inexperienced person. The apparently simple tasks of assigning work, outlining projects, instructing staff members on how things should be done, planning lunch hours or vacation schedules, and deciding on the arrangement of an office can often consume an hour or two or more daily—hours which are but grudgingly spared from other responsibilities.

Such details, however, must not be neglected or treated lightly, for the time invested here is necessary to inspire co-operation and enthusiastic effort on the part of the staff. Far too few administrators take the time to interpret the purposes and aims of their departments to their clerical staffs. Without such interpretation it is useless to hope for devoted and creative interest in the prompt and efficient accomplishment of routine as a contribution to the total purpose of the organization.

With a basic understanding and acceptance of purposes, the group may be counted on for real help in planning and organizing pro-

cedures and routines. Such planning makes supervision an entirely different procedure from that of direction and the giving of orders. In fact, it may be said that with adequate planning and mutual acceptance of purposes, orders in the form of commands are seldom necessary.

Trecker⁶ speaks of administration as an "enabling process," the process of facilitating the work of all members of the staff. Frequently this enabling process will take the form of securing adequate equipment and improved working conditions for one's staff. At other times, it may involve providing training in skills or it may demand the assumption of the role of counselor for the solution of personal and emotional problems of individuals. Reyburn,⁷ Chairman of the Board of Lord and Taylor advises the chief executive to consider himself an assistant to every one of his employees, assisting the staff to get their work done, rather than just hiring them to do it.

The executive who has aptitudes for routine might do well to participate occasionally in such mundane tasks as filing letters or stamping cards. He will learn much about how and why things are done or not done, but more important, he thus gains an invaluable opportunity to discover new techniques or improvements in procedures. His example in making something constructive come out of a routine task may well teach staff people to follow suit and produce further suggestions of value to the organization. Often valuable ideas are inherent in data but are concealed to the unimaginative employee as mere cards to file or transcripts to post.

In this regard, one executive has suggested that an administrator should not attempt to work alone. Through talking about the creative part of his work, by discussing plans, projects, and even "pipe-dreams" with subordinates as well as superiors, he may help to transmit his research spirit and interest in planning.

In emphasizing co-operation, planning and mutual responsibility, the administrator indirectly accomplishes much in the realm of *esprit-de-corps*. The supervisor must constantly be aware of and sensitive to the feelings and sentiments of his personnel and he must always be striving to understand and to meet the conflicts which they manifest.

⁶ Trecker, Harleigh B., *Group Process in Administration*, Woman's Press, New York, 1950, p. 18.

⁷ Reyburn in *For Top Executives Only*, J. George Frederick, Ed., The Business Bourse, New York, 1936, p. 72.

Tead,⁸ in his discussion of the subject of administration as an educational function, stresses the fact that people often have to be taught to live and work together harmoniously. Roethlisberger⁹ aptly describes friction as the striving of people to relate themselves to others without knowing how to do so. The administrator who commits himself to this point of view has a far harder task than that of reprimanding recalcitrant personnel or forcing conformity to established patterns of behavior.

In spite of careful planning, clearly defined purposes and sensitivity to individual feelings, any executive will occasionally have to function as a disciplinarian. To the novice this is frequently a most unpleasant requirement and the temptation is to postpone corrective measures until a crisis forces action. Such last-ditch action can rarely be the wisest and most beneficial to all concerned and often may be avoided by fair and prompt action at an earlier stage of affairs.

The supervisor must learn to correct others and must learn to do it skillfully and constructively. A disciplinary situation is ideally a learning situation. Punishment and retribution have little place in adult relations and can scarcely be expected to contribute greatly toward the development of healthier attitudes and values in individuals.

When all else fails, however, the executive must be willing to discharge an employee who is unwilling or unable to come into harmony with the rest of the organization. Frederick¹⁰ wisely suggests that one should never "fire" another, but "part with him with regret, delicacy and personal good wishes, accepting your own responsibility for his failure." Within that formula may be found almost verbatim the words necessary for a dismissal interview, the first few of which, at least, are likely to be sheer torture for the novice administrator.

Difficult as it is to develop, however, disciplinary ability would appear to be easier to acquire than the ability to compliment and commend others. Authorities agree that the good executive is quick to express appreciation and praise for work well done or improvement shown, and yet few seem to find it easy to do. The amenities of life, the kind word, the sick-room call, the message of condolence

⁸ Tead, Ordway, *The Art of Administration*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. New York, 1951. p. 195 ff.

⁹ Roethlisberger, *op. cit.*, op. xxi.

¹⁰ Frederick, J. George, *op. cit.*, p. 153.

seem not to come naturally to Americans and yet these are indispensable aids to morale.

As a final aspect of the matter of supervision, the novice administrator should be advised to go out of his way to teach and develop the potentialities of promising members of his staff. Wise counsel and friendly encouragement will inspire persons to new levels of attainment and such exploitation of human ability is one of the most rewarding privileges of administration. An element of altruism is required here to resist the temptation to keep intact a capable, efficient and well-functioning staff. To discourage, or fail to encourage individual growth and advancement is not in keeping with the spirit of education and the principles to which educators should be devoted.

Previous mention was made of the difficulty the administrator experiences in finding time for the research, writing, community service and personal development that he longs to accomplish. The development of able assistants facilitates this and also provides a measure of insurance against a breakdown of operations which might ensue were the administrator to be absent for a long period of time due to illness, vacation, or for other reasons. Many administrators have themselves applied for advancement within their own institutions only to be told that they could not be spared from their present assignment. The development of capable assistants may help to forestall this blind-alley feature of some administrative position.

HUMAN RELATIONS PITFALLS IN WORKING WITH COLLEAGUES

The new administrator who measures up to expectation in the matters of role and status and has ability as a supervisor will by reason of these virtues be quite likely to find his relations with his colleagues happy and productive. There are, however, pitfalls in this area which may be pointed out by way of warning to the novice.

Co-operative behavior is obviously a two-way matter. The administrator who hopes for co-operation must himself be co-operative. Individualism and specialization lead administrators as well as faculty members to lose sight of the total purpose of the institution and to resent demands on their time and facilities which hinder the effective operation of their separate departments. The new administrator must at all times endeavor to maintain his perspective regarding the place of his specialty in the total organization and should not refrain from expressing ideas which might logically be in the province of another.

This latter suggestion, however, raises the danger of interfering in the affairs of another department, a matter which is likely to be a major fault in the area of human relations. Any administrator must recognize the lines of authority and responsibility which are essential to efficient administration and beware of disrupting these channels. The public relations officer, the admissions officer, the director of non-academic personnel, are examples of staff officers whose major function is that of advising and assisting the chief executive. For these people to give orders to members of other departments with whom they come in contact is to fail to understand and appreciate the principles of line and staff organization.

It is in the committees and councils with which college life abounds that human relations strengths and weaknesses are most apparent. To the novice administrator his early appearances in these meetings present many pitfalls.

To some extent, the tradition of reticence and silence which prevails for freshmen in the United States Senate prevails for newcomers to councils and committees in educational life as well. The new staff member will do well to take time to learn at first hand the dynamics at work in any group before becoming a vocal member of that group.

This caution is particularly important where groups are clearly split and sides have been chosen for a prolonged, if relatively restrained, battle of wills and points of view. Barzun aptly states the dilemma which such a situation creates when he says, "A newcomer has to choose between the parties, and his choice determines whom he lunches with and plays bridge with and what part of town he must dwell in—not to mention his chances of advancement."¹¹ While conviction of right and wrong may force a choice sooner or later, the novice will do well to weigh carefully the support he will gain and lose by making known his choice. Issues which may be relatively unimportant may yet generate sufficient ill-feeling to affect other matters in which a staff member may be interested in receiving support or assistance.

In contradiction to the need for reticence in becoming an active member of a group, an honest acceptance of one's status and role as a new staff member may on occasion compel one to make an early con-

¹¹ Barzun Jacques, *Teacher in America*, Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1947, p. 81.

tribution to the group's deliberations and actions. There may be occasions upon which the particular professional knowledge of a staff specialist is called for and in such a situation, it is, of course, important to contribute as wisely and fully as possible.

Another great source of human relations conflict in education is a lack of understanding by all concerned of the many possible methods of co-ordination. Lines of interest and concern cross departmental and structural lines frequently in education, and duplication and overlapping of functions is common. Efficiency, economy and good sense dictate that co-ordination of efforts should be accomplished, but all too often the only concept of co-ordination that is known and practised is that of control.

Williamson has made a distinct contribution to the literature on administrative techniques with his analysis of the co-ordination of personnel services.¹² He points out that rigid centralization which is the only alternative to effective co-ordination, is often impossible and nearly always unwise. Methods of co-ordination which he proposes include:

1. Informal education through interviews, conferences, bulletins, and over-the-luncheon-table talks.
2. Relating to others the results of research and experience, translating these results into simple descriptions for easy assimilation by non-professionals.
3. The discovery and utilization of new sources of data and services on the campus.
4. Clarification of fields of work and functions, while working informally and with patient understanding to change structures which have become legalized or which have been inherited.

Apropos of this latter point, Carroll L. Shartle¹³ has written that some crossing of structural lines may be necessary, particularly where the formal organization has proven to be ineffective, and he points out that informal organization through friendly agreements, may often supplement the formal organization without damage to administrative effectiveness.

Communication is, of course, important to good human relations with one's colleagues. Keeping others informed is an almost infal-

¹² Williamson, Edmund G., "Co-ordination of Student Personnel Services", *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1940, vol. 4, pp. 229-233.

¹³ Shartle, Carroll L., "Leadership and Executive Performance," *Personnel*, vol. 25, March 1949, pp. 370-380.

lible method of winning support and good feeling, and is worth the expenditure of a great deal of time and effort.

HUMAN RELATIONS PITFALLS IN DEALING WITH SUPERIORS

Communication is also important to the administrator in maintaining a good state of human relations with his superiors. While a chief executive wants assistants who will accept responsibility and perform the functions delegated to them with as much independence as possible, he is seldom able to feel that he is kept adequately informed of progress. The novice administrator should be acutely aware of the public relations aspect of human relations and should seek opportunities to make known what is being accomplished. Frequent memoranda labeled (or at least intended) "for information" are useful devices for the new administrator to utilize.

Not uncommonly, administrators in the professions find it difficult to acquire what one college president has called "the proprietorship attitude of mind." Since monetary profit is not the goal of the operations being administered, it is sometimes easy to be casual about the use of supplies, extending vacations and time off or indiscriminate use of employees at overtime rates. Sincere devotion to the interests of the institution may be manifested in many small ways and consistent evidence of this interest will be warmly appreciated by the chief executive.

The administrator who finds it possible to maintain good human relations with his subordinates and his colleagues and also is able to contribute to the community and advance himself professionally is of course secure in the regard of his superiors. In short, the successful avoidance of the pitfalls discussed in the preceding sections of this paper is the best road to good human relations with one's superiors.

CONCLUSION

Passing mention was made in the opening pages of this discussion of the responsibility on the part of the chief executive for making the new staff member feel secure in his position and of helping him to learn the techniques and process of good human relations. Roethlisberger has written of the demoralizing conflict that ensues as a result of the dependent relationship of the subordinate to the superior. He stresses the fact that the chief executive must "learn new techniques and methods of assuring his subordinates of those

minimum conditions of security, not merely financial, without which the subordinate's position becomes intolerable."¹⁴ Such efforts, coupled with patient acceptance of errors and instruction in techniques of human relations should be considered essential corollaries to good recruitment and selection procedures for the development of capable new administrators.

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¹⁴ Roethlisberger, Fritz J., "The Nature and Conditions of Leadership" in *Human Factors in Management*, Schuyler D. Hoslett, Ed., Harper and Brothers, New York 1946, p. 72.

A New Plan for Class Schedules

WILLIAM L. DUNN

TWO YEARS ago Lake Forest College abolished Saturday morning classes and adopted a five day week for all class activities. After two years of trying to adapt the schedule to the five-day week of classes, most of which meet three hours but some of which meet two and some four or five times per week, it was apparent that a new plan would be necessary in order to minimize conflicts and utilize classroom space to greater advantage.

At the time that the plan for the five day week was begun, it was obvious that it would be necessary to extend classes further into the afternoon in order to get enough class periods in the week. This, of course, caused conflict with extra-curricular activities which are normally concentrated in the mid- and later afternoon hours. It was also difficult to get commuting students to register in these classes. Fitting the required chapel periods into the schedule was also a problem. Students are allowed to choose one period out of several during which they attend chapel each week. For a number of years a few three hour courses had met twice a week for seventy-five minutes each on Tuesday and Thursday afternoons. It seemed that this plan might be extended to all three hour classes meeting on Tuesday and Thursday.

Under the plan as now in operation, three hour classes are scheduled on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday of each week at 8:00, 9:00, 10:00, 11:00, 1:10, 2:10, and 3:10 for fifty minutes each. On Tuesday and Thursday three hour classes are scheduled from 8:00 to 9:15, from 10:35 to 11:50, from 1:10 to 2:25, and from 2:35 to 4:00. It has been found unnecessary to use the last periods each day except for a very few classes which are mainly laboratory periods, music group rehearsals, and physical education classes. A few two hour classes meet on Tuesday and Thursday. These meet either from 8:00 to 8:50 or from 11:00 to 11:50. There are four twenty-five minute chapel periods each week during which no classes are scheduled. These are from 9:25 to 9:50 and from 10:00 to 10:25 on Tuesday and Thursday. Students not in chapel during a particular period may use this time for meetings, study, conferences with

faculty, and similar activities, since they may choose which of the four chapel periods they wish to attend. This arrangement also makes it possible to have an hour-long chapel or convocation on special occasions by using two of these periods.

Although there is a variation in the class schedule for two sets of days in the week, students and faculty seemed to become used to the pattern in a very short time. The arrangement is simplified by having classes start at 8:00 each morning and having classes out for lunch at 11:50 each day. All first period classes in the afternoon start at 1:10.

During the preparation of the schedule it was obvious that there would be fewer conflicts and more nearly complete use of classroom space. This has been borne out by the experience of this fall semester. It is anticipated that the plan will be in use at Lake Forest College for some time to come.

Registration By Appointment

JOHN A. FISHER

ALMOST every student who has ever registered in a college or university has spent from one to three days in the process. A considerable amount of the total time used in the ordinary type of registration procedure is spent standing in line. Students queue up to get registration materials, to see their advisers, to get their registration cards and to pay fees.

For the past six years students at Coe College have registered without any standing in line. Beginning in September 1946, registration at Coe has been by appointment.

The procedure used takes some time to organize but the time saved in registering and the convenience to the individual student makes the preliminary work very much worth while.

The registration period is divided into two parts. The first part is used for the registration of new students and the second part to register returning students. Returning students pre-register during the spring semester and thereby indicate their intention to return and their desires with regard to schedule. New students are ordinarily registered on Saturday afternoon and Monday morning, with Monday afternoon and Tuesday being used for returning students.

During "Orientation Week" the new students meet with their advisers, once as a group and once as individuals. The advisers have folders on all students containing materials that might be helpful in the counseling process, including placement examination scores and previous academic records. After general orientation sessions that include information concerning the curriculum and graduation requirements, the students are given opportunities to ask general questions in the small group meetings and later to work out specific problems in the individual conferences with advisers.

All students are assigned advisers by a committee consisting of the Academic Dean, the Dean of Students, and the Registrar.

Each student is assigned a registration appointment by the Registrar. Each half day of registration is divided into nine twenty-minute periods beginning at eight and ending at eleven o'clock in the morning and starting at one and ending at four o'clock in the afternoon.

Assignments of appointments are made in such a way that the flow of students past the various registration stations is steady and so that there are no "bottle-necks." The flow is controled so that there are not more than twenty students registering during any twenty-minute period. It is usually possible to arrange the appointments so that advisers can have as much as forty minutes with each advisee.

Since new students are on campus for almost a week before registering, it is possible to notify them of their appointments by posting lists on the various campus and dormitory bulletin boards. All returning students are sent postal cards giving them pertinent information including the name of the adviser and the period during which they are to register. These cards are mailed about two weeks prior to registration.

This procedure will handle as many as nine hundreds registrations in three days using one set of registering stations. The writer believes that the plan can be used for the registration of any number of students simply by adding to the number of days or to the number of sets of registering stations. This would make for compact registration units and students would not need to travel all around a campus to register.

The average total time used for registration by a student at Coe College is less than two hours. We believe that the convenience of registering by appointment and the saving of time to the individual student gets everyone off to a good start and that student relations are much better than with usual registration procedures. We have found that advisers are very much in favor of the plan.

The Mythical Student

C. W. CRANNELL

AT THE recent annual meeting of the American Psychological Association there was a symposium on "Student-Centered vs. Instructor-Centered College Instruction."¹ As the chairman of the group stated in his summary, none of the participants had much to say in favor of instructor-centered teaching. On the other hand, advocacy of degrees of student-centered teaching ranged all the way from establishment of a mild democratic atmosphere to placing selection of the course content almost entirely in the hands of the students.

From this assemblage of competent writers and researchers on teaching problems I had hoped to glean some vital wisdom which would enable me to discard my groggy old academic teaching habits in favor of new and enlightened procedures. I was disappointed. I came away with but one real gem. One of the speakers pointed out that all studies of classroom atmosphere (psychologists use "atmosphere" to mean type of social interaction within a group of people) to date have demonstrated merely that students will play the game. If a "democratic" procedure is used, the students behave democratically; if an authoritarian (by this term our modern educators appear to mean that the instructor gives lectures) climate is enforced, the students acquiesce in the authority. However, this speaker went on to say, we have no consistent evidence that any one procedure produces better end results, in terms of student achievement in the subject matter of the course, than does any other method of teaching.

Aside from this one really insightful discussion, as I have said, I was disappointed in what was offered me. Once again, I think, the critical problem in teaching method was missed, and primarily so because the participants elected to remain loyal to a myth: the myth of "the" student. "The" student rears his ugly shape in almost every discussion I have ever heard of teaching problems. I meet him in mortal combat every time my fellow (but non-psychological) academicians become excited about tests of student achievement in

¹ Participants: Percival M. Symonds, chairman, Benjamin Bloom, N. P. Cantor, Morton Deutsch, Irving Lorge, Wilbert J. McKeachie, and Lauren Wispé.

courses. "Essay" tests, they aver, teach "the" student to "think;" "objective" tests, on the other hand, encourage "the" student to rely on "memory." What a fearsome array of conceptual imps and hypos-tatized ogres this myth can assemble to combat a logical attack! "Essay," "objective," "teach to think," "encourage to memorize," these and others like them strew confusion though the discussion. Just try to get down to brass tacks with a consideration of what a given instructor may be trying to do with a given body of information and a given group of students!

If one does succeed in bringing tangible specificity into the discussion, the hallucinatory gremlins at once begin to fade. Here is an instructor whose task it is to get across the elementary concepts in chemistry to a large group of beginning students. Here is another instructor (or the same one in a different role) whose task it is to advance the knowledge of a select group of senior chemistry majors with forty course-hours of chemistry behind them. It is my contention that the way you test and what you test for in each of these situations cannot be fitted to a single rule or system. "Thinking" depends upon the sound acquisition of facts and procedures, and it is as senseless to call upon a novice to think in chemistry as it is to expect someone to play classical music on an instrument he has never seen before. No doubt one might waste the beginner's time, and one's own as well, by letting him "think *about*" chemistry, but he is not ready to "think *in*" chemistry until he has marshalled some facts. To test for possession of facts one should use some objective (in this sense, fact-diagnostic) procedure. (Here let the reader repeat this paragraph substituting for "chemistry" any other subject matter he desires.)

It is furthermore my contention that this line of reasoning applies firmly to teaching method. In this case I shall use my own subject of psychology as an illustration. Most students come to their first course in psychology with a conglomerate of bizarre notions which we have to work hard to remove. Their information on the subject is a discordant potpourri of hearsay about "personality," "insanity," and "sex." With a gang of malinformed novices like this (our student-centered advocates assert) we are to make some leading suggestions and then set up some sort of a project system whereby students carry on investigations and report their findings, and discuss each other's work (even grade it!) with minimum instructor-participation. Of one thing I am certain: I am personally not clever enough to get away

with such a technique of teaching beginners. If I tried it, I should merely succeed in building more ignorance upon the ignorance my students brought with them. I am willing to believe that some of my colleagues are clever enough to make the system work, but I trust they will permit me to suspect the presence of a certain inefficiency through the application of such methods.

Thus, having come away from this symposium unenlightened and unreconstructed, I fear I shall have to go on lecturing in my old instructor-centered way to my beginners. My advanced students will continue to develop their own knowledge and, in small, quasi-democratic groups, present their work to our mutual advantage and acquisition. I can use such students to educate *me*, but I have yet to listen to a class report by a novice in my subject which does not annoy me by its insufficiency, or read an essay by one which does not depress me by its immaturity. How is it that my advanced students can excite and challenge me with their offerings? I do not believe that it is because they have practiced making stupid reports and writing feeble essays; I am convinced it is because they have been hammered full of facts, so that they can absorb, organize, and give clear expression to, important ideas within our discipline.

Finally, I should like to undermine one further myth: that of "the" instructor. The professional educators (I like the term, "educationists") among us have been hard at work to bolster this myth at the college level. Conference after conference has been held in search for the criteria by which to select the most excellent college teachers. I believe that such criteria do exist, but what seems to have come out of the many attempts to discover them are lists of *rules for conduct*, rather than schemes for measuring the product of good teaching. The criteria of college teaching, if they ever do become identified, are certainly not going to be simple, unitary, nor subject to the regimentation implied in rules for conduct. As long as young people come as freshmen to universities, and as long as we can keep their knowledge in a constant accumulative trend for four years, there will be no room in reality for "the" teacher, and even "a" teacher, if he handles different levels of his subject matter, will need to be "many."

Some Comments on Selective Service*

MAJOR GENERAL LEWIS B. HERSHEY

I WAS GRATIFIED to learn the other day that upwards of 100,000 veterans are already enrolled in our colleges and universities under the new Korea bill of rights, although the program was not inaugurated until late in August and the rate of release of individuals from active duty was just beginning to reflect the higher draft calls which had begun two years before.

To me this is something more than an interesting, agreeable commentary on the fact that our returning veterans are not slow in accepting educational opportunities made possible by a grateful Government, for it would seem to demonstrate that there is little danger that the billions of dollars which our citizenry has invested in institutions of higher learning will not go a'wasting because some men are being taken temporarily away from colleges and universities to meet an obligation of citizenship.

Selective Service, as a matter of fact, has taken very few men from colleges and universities under the present draft act. Relatively speaking, the number is so small that it may be termed infinitesimal, and there is every reason to believe that even with much tighter requirements for student deferment the combined effect of Selective Service and the new Korea bill of rights will be to increase the male population of the colleges rather than to decrease it.

It is not difficult to dispel the delusion that the draft has taken relatively large numbers of college students away from their classrooms and it can be done without going into too much detail. There are approximately 1,200,000 male students in colleges. Keep that approximate figure in mind as we roughly review the kinds of students we aren't allowed to draft either by present law or present regulations. First, many of these 1,200,000 are veterans of World War II. They can't be drafted under the law. Then there is the provision in the Selective Service Law that any student doing satisfactory work who receives a notice to report for induction after he has started his

* This article was originally written for the *Boston University Literary Magazine*, by whose kind permission it is reprinted here. It also appeared in *Selective Service* for January, 1953.

academic year must be deferred until the end of his academic year. Considerably more than a fourth of the 1,200,000 are in R.O.T.C. programs. We can't draft these because the law says, in effect, that they must be deferred in numbers designated by the Secretary of Defense, who at this writing has so designated approximately 322,000 of them.

Now the law, with certain qualifications, makes the age of liability $18\frac{1}{2}$ to 26, but as a matter of fact, we have not reached the 19-year-old group as I write this, so no college students under 20 have thus far been inducted. And we are deferring about 200,000 college students because they meet certain class standards or received a certain score in the E.T.S. examination.

But we're still not through with the subtraction process. For after we have made all the subtractions I have enumerated from our original 1,200,000, we still have to subject the remainder to subtraction of the number who "flunk" the Armed Forces physical and mental examinations, which means loss of one-third or more of that remainder. So if I may be permitted to use the word "vulnerable," not a great number of college students have even been vulnerable under the present Selective Service Law, the regulations, and, may I say, the policy of the Department of Defense, despite the fact that the law itself sets the ages of liability at between $18\frac{1}{2}$ and 26 and also extends liability for service of those deferred under regulations to 35 years.

In the meantime, to meet the calls for men which the Department of Defense must have to maintain our Armed Forces at a strength consistent with national safety, we have been inducting industrial workers; we have been inducting farmers in large numbers; the number of college students we are deferring for R.O.T.C. membership alone is almost 100,000 more than the number we are deferring in Agriculture and Industry combined. We have been inducting married men for considerably more than a year, and now that the drafting of fathers looms as an imminent necessity in the not-so-distant future, we certainly must look toward the colleges with something more than an appraising eye. The time for appraising in that direction is about over and the time for action is almost here.

We have these elements. First, is the need. This need has been well established. It has been shown very clearly that Armed Forces of between $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 million men is the minimum we must maintain if our cherished freedom is to remain secure; it has likewise been shown

that Selective Service must bear the brunt of meeting this need, which is a common need and which, whether we like it or not, must take precedence over the individual needs and desires.

The second of these elements of which I speak is the supply. Congress in its wisdom has said that the supply must be limited to men between certain ages and if I had the space I could show you how it is rapidly becoming a physical—perhaps I should say a mathematical—impossibility to meet our calls and stay within the law without substantial tightening of deferments. And it should never be forgotten that students will not be the only men affected by this tightening.

I believe that nearly all discussions of this kind deal in a number of fallacies. The first is that a man who is called upon to fulfill his sacred obligation of citizenship by serving in the Armed Forces is being compelled to sacrifice not only his physical comfort, but all his dreams and aspirations for the future—that he is being condemned to some kind of Siberian exile insofar as hopes for tomorrow are concerned. This is very far from the truth. I am amazed that the fallacy seems to be so widely accepted.

In the case of college students, the absurdity of the fallacy is especially apparent, for in the vast majority of cases the man who leaves college to serve in the Armed Forces—granting that he is ambitious and honestly wants an education—will come back to college after completion of active service vastly grown in mental stature, tempered with experience, and the benefits he will receive from college training will be increased commensurately. This is no idle speculation. Its truth is attested by thousands upon thousands of World War II veterans who flocked back to our colleges, or entered for the first time, after their release from active service. And many a young man who might have been barred from—or had great difficulty in pursuing—his education because of financial reasons will have this problem of financing greatly eased, if not erased.

Sometimes the simplest things are the things most difficult to understand and one of the simple things that seem to be misunderstood by many people today is that although Selective Service is taking men from civilian life to serve in the military, it is likewise returning them to civilian life in numbers as great or greater.

And, except in very rare instances, the men who are returning are better men than when they left—in virtually every way that can be named.

Editorial Comment

A Program of Education

APPARENTLY there is to be an emphasized program of inquiry into subversive activities on college campuses, if what we read in the papers is at all reliable. There has been a considerable amount of investigation for some time: if it is increased and invigorated, there may be a good many disagreeable consequences to academic people, for some of which they are themselves in part to blame. If we are honest teachers—and most of us are—we believe that one of the best ways, if not the best, to obviate such consequences is a program of education. What some of us may not realize is that such a program may best begin, but not end, at home.

There are some among us who do not yet seem to realize that genuine, committed Communists have no place in our educational system. Some of our colleagues insist that a man has the right to any political opinion that may seem best to him, and that Communists are no exception. That may be true enough, but it is not the whole matter. What we have to bring to the attention of our colleagues who insist on such rights is that nobody has the right to teach in our institutions of learning. Faculty status is a privilege (however much it may at times seem like a penalty) to be won and maintained by ability and suitability—and one who is committed to the overthrow of the society we have confidence in is not suitable as a mentor in such a society. Nobody can be forced to believe in God, but an atheist can hardly expect to be acceptable to the ministry because he has a right to believe as he chooses.

We have the job of educating our colleagues to understand that while a man committed to our overthrow may have the right to be a conspirator, he cannot demand the right to keep us from defending ourselves against conspiracy, and doubly defending our children. Party members, Stalinists, may not feel like conspirators, but their feelings need not guide us in opposing them wherever they appear. But there are other Communists who are not Stalinists, who are not Party members, who merely believe that a communistic community is better than the sort of community we enjoy.

Our second job of education is to show these people, if we can, what

they ought to have found out for themselves: that communism doesn't work. Even the primitive Christians failed to make it work, dedicated as they were; and modern sects have had no great success with it, even in the most religiously dedicated groups. Attempts at communism that have not been based on religious tenets have wound up as absurd, or perhaps tragic. They have not worked, nor is there any reason to suppose that communistic society will work.

Furthermore, theoretical communists are not only misguided: they are also a danger against which we have to protect ourselves. In the first place, they support, willy-nilly, the Stalinists. In the second place, they confuse their pupils. They do not teach, to be sure, under orders, as dedicated Party members do; but they teach under a misapprehension that leads to genuine danger to us and our children. They support Stalinism as agnosticism supports atheism.

On the other hand, there are some of our colleagues who labor under the notion that any one who does not believe and teach in accordance with the tenets of fascistic organizations is *ipso facto* a menace to the Republic. There is, as there has been for generations, a powerful group of social reactionaries who make every effort to hamstring inquiry into political, social, and economic theory and activity. They insist on straight propaganda for what was successful in the Gilded Age of the last century. In their eyes, a man who inquires into monopolistic activity is subversive. A man who admits that the technical and economic changes of the last century may demand revision of social and political method is denounced as a Socialist—whatever that may mean: in the vocabulary of the reactionaries it means simply some one who does not hold with them.

Furthermore, the reactionaries, those who want to enjoy the good old days of unlimited privilege for those who control material wealth, are a godsend to dedicated Communists. They confuse in the minds of people who do not think very hard—and few of us do—those who are eager to improve conditions as they exist and seek ways and means to do so, with those who are ordered to work toward the overthrow of our society. They succeed in getting a great many of us to lump together all those who do not subscribe to theories and methods adopted and exercised under, say, Rutherford B. Hayes. And their political henchmen, who may engage in inquiry into the activities of academic people, are inclined—some of them are, at any rate—to pester men engaged in honest inquiry and honest presentation of alternatives as if they were engaged in a conspiracy.

In other words, they manage to get all academic people who are not mouthpieces looked at with suspicion, treated as subversive elements (what a dangerous piece of silliness that phrase is!), and investigated to the detriment of inquiry, teaching, and even social acceptability. What could make a Stalinist happier than to have every inquiring mind stopped in its activity? What suits Stalinists better than meek acceptance without reasoning?

Here is in itself a program of education, simply in keeping before our colleagues, our students, and our neighbors the facts in the matter, and the nature of academic activity. The job is complicated and made much more difficult by the fact that the confusion is supported with great success by professional patriots and professional Christians, who give an aura of Americanism and religion to irrationality. Nor can we afford to forget that those who promote such confusion have among them some of the cleverest writers and speakers available: we cannot afford to underestimate the ability of those who make confusion worse confounded.

The practical part of the program is, then, to keep clear to ourselves and others the dangers of Stalinism, and to fight it, and if possible to eliminate it before outsiders get a chance to point it out; to keep clear to ourselves and others the dangers of intellectual confusion of any sort; and to insist that failure to think and inquire is to encourage Stalinism. There is also a theoretical part, which is to maintain that thinking is what is important to our society, not the specific results of a specific individual's thinking.

If we have confidence in our society, we believe that it can stand up under critical evaluation. It is stronger than the mistakes individuals may make. But it is not strong enough to stand up under the assaults of widespread mental deficiency.

There is another group who might be considered when we think of a program of education. They are those who refuse, because of their Constitutional rights, to declare themselves free of Communistic association and activity. Some of those who refuse to state whether or not they are or have been Communists, or have belonged to organizations found to be Communistic, are doubtless Communists; what they do is presumably told to them by their superiors. But there are others who are no more Communists than those who interrogate them, but who believe that they are right in refusing to state what is their business and theirs alone. That may be. On the other hand, in insisting on such rights in a time of confusion and fear—of irrationality—they confuse

their students, who cannot help wondering whether they are faking. They confuse their contemporaries, who are scared, and consequently too ready to believe the worst about anybody. And they embarrass their colleagues, who have to spend their time explaining the situation to people who do not want to understand. They may want to be martyrs, but they forget that it takes more than getting killed to make a martyr.

This is a doctrine of expediency, perhaps. On the other hand, it may be a decision between values: whether it is better to stand on rights, or to show oneself, even if such exhibition is contrary to Constitutional theory, among those who believe in thinking things through and leading others to do likewise. Whether it is better to eliminate oneself from the conflict on high moral and legal grounds, or to go on with the battle even at unusual sacrifice.

Then there are those who at some time or other joined an organization, believing it to be as virtuous as it pretended to be, and who have found out too late that it was a front. There are those who are jiners and those who are not; and the jiners are asked to pay a penalty, not for having bad intentions, but simply for jining. Others who have just the same ideas and beliefs as the jiners are not even bothered—and again, simply because they are not jiners.

Our program of education involves persuading our colleagues to watch what they are doing, and also persuading others that good people can voluntarily but with excellent intentions get into bad company that disguises itself as honorable. In old times, according to the stories, many a good man was taken in by devils in celestial trappings—taken in for a time. Trappings have changed, but men have not: we still look at the halo, and listen to the voice, and forget to look at the feet. And when some one has been taken in, the rest of us are still apt to regard him as some one who has had communion with the Prince of Darkness, and therefore a damned soul. We forget that eyes can be opened as well as dazzled.

We have a strenuous and lasting program of education before us. It is one that we did not seek, and one that we regret having to engage in. But it is one that we have to pursue successfully if we want to maintain our own integrity and that of our profession. If we do not, we shall be told what to do, to say, and to think. And whoever it may be that gives us orders, if we get into that situation we are no longer teachers.

S. A. N.

Book Reviews

S. A. N.

Trytten, M. H. *Student Deferment in Selective Service*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. 140.

The author weighs many of the implications and effects of universal military service again the policy of selective assignment on the basis of potential usefulness. Everyone concerned with higher education is reminded that "the variety of specialists called for by a modern global military effort covers almost the total range of college curriculums." This complete and concise statement of the existing student deferment policy seems appropriate as a basis for considering the effect of past, present, and future manpower needs on higher education.

College and university officials charged with advising students concerning their selective service relationships should have this detailed statement at their disposal. Registrars and personnel deans should also have access to this brief volume. An excellent summary chapter concludes Dr. Trytten's discussion of the student deferment policy under the following headings: I The Problem . . . II Steps in Establishing the Policy . . . III Factors Determining the Policy . . . IV Logical Bases for the Policy . . . V Reserve Officers Training Programs. Part two of this publication contains added sections of informative material such as: Our Intellectual Resources and The Selective Service Qualification Test.

It is important for the observer to have some points of reference in this manpower area which is undergoing rapid change. The writer provides such a framework from the experience and know-how of his position as Director of the Office of Scientific Personnel, National Research Council. Indirect federal controls upon higher education are implied within these pages but they are overshadowed by the soundly established theme that college training has become as essential as military training in the total national defense.

CARL W. KNOX, *Dean of Men*
Miami University,
Oxford, Ohio

College and University Business Administration, Volume I, Compiled by The National Committee on the Preparation of a Manual on College and University Business Administration, Washington: ACE, 1952. Pp. xiv + 217.

This volume has been eagerly awaited by the field of college administra-

tion. Although there are a number of very good books in the field of recent publication, they are in the main texts with considerably expanded descriptive material and usually an emphasis on some particular phase of College or University Business administration.

This volume is authoritative. It is a revision and extension of "Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities" which has been the "bible" in the field for practically all American University and College Accounting since its publication in 1935. The committee who actually wrote the chapters of this book are distinguished men in the field; and since the chapters were widely circulated in the field for criticism, this volume represents the consensus of opinion of Business Administrators of higher educational institutions throughout the country.

A firm stand has been taken by the authors on the necessity of following the principles of fund accounting. There has been considerable criticism by advocates of following commercial methods of accounting which emphasize the determination of net profit and net worth. The authors reject this point of view on the basis that in nonprofit organizations, no such objective exists, but rather that of properly accounting for funds entrusted to the organization. Similarly the prescribing of special methods of accounting for schools that are part of a governmental organization is criticized as it is felt that the accepted principles of higher education accounting should be applied to all such institutions.

Emphasis is placed on the necessity of accurate budgets and budgetary control so that income and expenditures are accurately forecast for planning purposes, and that revisions should be made during the period so that the budget actually corresponds to conditions during the period. It is advised that budget figures be recorded in the accounts for more positive control.

Desirable forms of financial statements are discussed and model forms are shown. Control through external and internal auditing is advocated. A chapter is devoted to the determination and use of unit costs.

The bibliography is extensive and the indexing is complete.

ROBERT E. EGAN, C.P.A.
Pace College

Mutschmann, H., and Wentersdorf, K. *Shakespeare and Catholicism*, New York: Sheed and Ward, 1952. Pp. xvii + 446.

The thesis of this controversial book is that William Shakespeare was, all his life, secretly an ardent Catholic and that throughout his works there may be found a strongly Catholic point of view. The authors do not claim to be presenting much new material but are rather assembling and analyzing the work of earlier scholars who have maintained the Catholic position. The first half of the book is devoted to historical and biographical background and the remainder to a critical study of Catholic elements in Shakespeare's

works. In addition there are pertinent appendices, genealogical tables, and a short but useful bibliography.

Viewing the matter as objectively as possible, the present reviewer cannot believe that Messrs. Mutschmann and Wentersdorf have proven their contention. They have sifted assiduously every available scrap of information about Shakespeare's parents, relatives, friends, and acquaintances at Stratford and London for evidence to show that he was brought up in a Catholic environment, remained true to the old faith all his life, and died a Catholic. But the difficulty with the authors' methods is that they detect Catholicism in every circumstance, major or minor; all is grist to their mill. Every mystery in the life of a man who lived four centuries ago (and there are undeniably many mysteries about the life of Shakespeare) can be explained, the authors think, by the simple principle that he was a Catholic. Which teachers impressed the youthful lad most? The Catholic ones. What accounts for the puzzling circumstances of Shakespeare's wedding? Shakespeare had determined upon a Catholic wedding, not an Anglican one. Why did Shakespeare leave Stratford for London? He was escaping the persecution of Catholics. Why did he choose the stage as his vocation? Because the Elizabethan drama is a product of Catholic traditions (!). Who were his friends in London? Catholics, or Catholic sympathizers, to the tune of fourteen out of thirty-three (not a staggering proportion, that!). Why did Shakespeare fail to mention his wife and her family in his will? They were probably anti-Catholic. And so on.

This exegesis is interesting and often ingenious—too ingenious. The publishers are correct in advertising that the book "has all the fascination of a well worked-out detective story": we remember that a detective story is, after all, fiction, and that actual life is not often "well worked-out." For example, the authors make much of the strong evidence that Shakespeare's father was probably a Catholic. But this does not mean *ipso facto* that the son was brought up so or did not later conform to Anglicanism, as did many a child of devout Catholic parents in those troubled days. Nor can the authors successfully explain away certain stubborn facts—that William Shakespeare was baptized an Anglican, applied for an Anglican marriage license, baptized his children as Anglicans, and was buried in the chancel of an Anglican church (p. 376). And their attempt to negate the undeniably Protestant wording of Shakespeare's will is a masterpiece of legalistic quibbling (p. 186). Certainly it seems fair enough to say that there is at least as much reason to believe that Shakespeare was an Anglican as that he was a Catholic. "I'll have grounds more relative than this."

But all of this biographical and historical examination is actually of secondary importance. Whatever may have been the poet's actual religious affiliation, the main question is to what extent did he present in his writings the views of any particular religious faith? *Are his works Catholic in spirit?* The authors strive earnestly to prove that they are. Shakespeare, it is

claimed, reveals an unusual knowledge of and sympathy for Catholic dogmas, ideas, and customs. Now here we must distinguish between the key words "knowledge" and "sympathy." The examples given indicate only that Shakespeare was familiar with many Catholic ideas. It is a much more difficult task to prove that Shakespeare was a Catholic sympathizer, and the authors have not been generally successful in this area. All too often passages are wrenched out of context and arbitrarily labelled "Catholic," passages which the unbiased reader would regard as very general—for example, the quotations mentioning the holiness of marriage (p. 224) or the efficacy of prayer (p. 231). Equally serious is the authors' tendency, illustrated time and time again, to take the views of a character in a play as the views of Shakespeare himself. As an example of this type of fallacy, we may note the judgment that Shakespeare maintained the attitude favoring chastity which Othello expresses (p. 293), and further that Shakespeare was an ascetic because some of his characters in *Love's Labour's Lost* express praise of the ascetic life (p. 294)!

The point, of course, is that Shakespeare was an objective dramatic artist who shaped powerful dramatic effects from the prosaic accounts of his sources and who carefully kept himself out of his plays. Religion does have a part in those plays, but only in the background. It is significant that in none of his great tragedies does the hero express any Christian, let alone Catholic, consolation in his downfall; Shakespeare allows no hope of a future happy life to mitigate the miseries of the present. Essentially the authors find only two plays deeply Catholic in tone—*Measure for Measure* and *Romeo and Juliet*; they particularly rejoice at the favorable portraits of Catholic priests and nuns in these plays. But two plays out of thirty-seven is not an astronomically high proportion, and both of them are relatively minor works. Also it is quite conceivable, to say the least, that Shakespeare used a Catholic tone there for dramatic rather than religious effect: his story line is improved by a dignified treatment of the Catholic clergy in those particular plays (surely he is not particularly reverent towards some of the Catholic clergy in his historical plays, as the authors are willing to admit).

Their case that Shakespeare reveals his personal sympathies in his writings is further weakened by their understandably brief consideration of his non-dramatic poetry. Here if anywhere, in Shakespeare's lyric poetry, we should be able to discover his personal views. But of the one hundred and fifty-four sonnets which he wrote, they can find only one that is Catholic in tone (No. 146), and even that one seems doubtful! And Shakespeare's early, erotic "Venus and Adonis"—an interesting poem for a "chaste" writer—only serves to embarrass their position further.

In short, this study does not prove that Shakespeare was a Catholic or spoke for the Catholic viewpoint. But perhaps it does show, at least, that Shakespeare was not bigoted *against* Catholicism.

GILBERT M. RUBENSTEIN
Pace College

Bach, Marcus, *Of Faith and Learning*, Iowa City: The School of Religion, SUI, 1952. Pp. 261.

Here is an exasperating book. Something important to all of us has been going on at the State University of Iowa for a quarter of a century, but the reader never finds out what it is. Mr. Bach's book purports to tell the history of the School of Religion connected with the University, but it never tells what has been done, or how it has been done.

A school of religion connected with a state university, which has ministered to the needs of its own state and of men and women from all parts of the world; a school which has successfully solved the problems of interdenominational operation; a school which in the opinion of those who help in its operation may be exemplary—such a school deserves the most careful exposition when its history is told. Readers want to know what is done in the school—and listings of courses are no more enlightening in a history than in a college catalogue. They want to know how difficulties were obviated—and encomiums on the co-operative activities of excellent men and women are encouraging rather than enlightening. They want to know how to go about making other such schools successful—and imaginary conversations between academicians, churchmen, and business men give no answer.

Mr. Bach's aim seems to have been to introduce, with at least one adulatory remark, the name of every individual who has been in any way helpful in the establishment and maintenance of the School of Religion in Iowa City. One can only suppose he has succeeded in doing so. He has at least conveyed the impression that there are a great many good people in Iowa, and that most of them are thundering bores.

That impression is in part, at least, Mr. Bach's responsibility, for he has invented, apparently in the hope of making his history "readable," protracted conversations between various men interested in establishing the School. Any one who has known, as I have, a number of those who are supposedly quoted, can only assume that they talk one way most of the time, and another way when they get together on the business of a school of religion. Or, of course, one can assume that Mr. Bach is writing down to his readers in the hope of relieving them of tedium in assimilating any information at all about so erudite a subject. Like any one else who writes down to his readers, Mr. Bach only succeeds in conveying the impression that he thinks they are idiots.

The School of Religion in Iowa City has, apparently, grown and prospered in the teaching of religion by men of all faiths to men and women of all faiths. If it has not, then this book is mendacious. If it has, this book is absurd, since it conveys very little information beyond the general statement of success.

To the hope that some one will tell an interested public what has been done at Iowa City, and how it has been done, I can only add the hope that

the countless people mentioned in Mr. Bach's effusion enjoy seeing their names in print, and will forget what Mr. Bach makes them say.

S. A. N.

Traxler, Arthur E., ed., *Education in a Period of National Preparedness*. A Report of the Sixteenth Educational Conference, New York City, November 1-2, 1951, Held under the Auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education, Washington: ACE, 1952. Pp. vi + 141.

The educators who have contributed to this conference have wisely recognized that education in a time of national crisis requires a serious analysis of the democratic traditions, with a view to determining strengths and weaknesses. As is to be expected, this analysis had produced nothing startlingly new for the teaching profession. The value of these particular papers lies primarily in the almost unanimous reiteration of the principle that democracy can be best served when the interests of the individual are considered first.

The articles which contain the most practical suggestions on how to make education effective with the individual student are those dealing with college admissions, the teaching of reading, arithmetic, oral and written composition, health, and personality development. In each of these presentations there is helpful advice offered on how to assist in producing a well-adjusted citizenry.

For the reader who is concerned with the place of the independent institution on the educational scene, two challenging and stimulating papers have been submitted by Claude M. Fuess and Ralph C. Hutchison. Both authors are convincingly reassuring that this type of school, in its freedom from financial and intellectual control, can do much to keep alive the American spirit.

An especially inspirational article is one by Harry D. Gideonse in which he discusses our political education and political behavior. Mr. Gideonse finds training in this area to be weakened by too much emphasis on the so-called "peer group psychology" and not enough on the development of the conscience and inner direction. Mr. Gideonse does fail to be sufficiently specific about how to overcome the weaknesses.

On the whole, the two-day conference has rendered a service by directing our thinking from the contemporary to the historical and from the secular to the spiritual. While the tenor of the writings is optimistic, it will be apparent that much of what has been said here has been said before. Let us hope, therefore, that these are not just more "voices crying in the wilderness."

HARRIETT PREBLE
Montgomery Junior College
Takoma Park, Md.

Bell, Bernard Iddings, *Crowd Culture*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. Pp. 159.

Crowd Culture is composed of lectures given at Ohio Wesleyan University in the spring of 1952. Canon Bell, whose point of view toward American culture and American education is well known, has added a good deal of weighty evidence to his thesis that American culture is a crowd culture, provincial and trivial. In his first chapter he looks at our culture through certain indexes.

Among those indexes are the means of communication—the press, radio, and television; books and magazines; and advertising. He also considers sports, recreation, music, theater, education, religion, and manners. What he has to say about these indexes is by no means novel or original, but it is nevertheless devastating.

There are two forces to which one might look for remedy of our depressingly trivial culture: the schools and the churches. Looking at the schools first, Canon Bell finds little to commend. The pupils in our schools do not know how to read, write, speak, or listen; they have no idea what to do with numbers, nor have they developed any method of distinguishing between facts and guesses. They have not learned good manners, respect for others, tolerance, or consideration. They have not learned that achievement is the basis of reward. They have learned nothing about one of the greatest influences in human life, religion.

One might remark here that Canon Bell as a Churchman is constantly active in the endeavor to bring religion into our education, but one reviewer at least feels that the plan he suggests in his latest book is not only visionary, but unreasonable. Nevertheless, it is a plan, and that is more than can be said for a good deal of talk on the subject.

Canon Bell also points out that the American school holds back young people of better than average ability and ambition.

That is bad enough, but Canon Bell does not stop there. He points out with documentation that the teachers in our schools are in the hands of a group of educational administrators who not only interfere with teaching, but sometimes hold the threat of dismissal over faculty members. Many of our teachers could and would do a good job, but are constantly hindered by administrative superiors who do not understand teaching and learning. Anyone who wants to know why we have so few candidates for the teaching profession, who is worried by the fact that future generations of Americans will be badly taught, if they are taught at all, may get a pretty good idea from *Crowd Culture* why the situation is as it is. (It should not be supposed, however, that Canon Bell's discussion is the only one making this point: Dr. Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., of the University of Illinois, published a thoroughly documented indictment of schools of education in *The Scientific Monthly* for August, 1952, under the title *Aimlessness in Education*.)

The third chapter of the book deals with the Church. Canon Bell's churchmanship is orthodox and intense. It is also charitable and stimulating. Whether or not you agree with his churchmanship, there is nothing the matter with Canon Bell's religion as far as we can understand the Christian religion. He finds that the Church is not doing what it might do to relieve us from our triviality, perhaps because it is too much organized and not enough religious. Its worship, says Canon Bell, is pedestrian, and its morality is far too much a sentimentalized worldliness. It is not militant; it is not determined; and it is not, in a way which Canon Bell explains in his last chapter, rebellious.

It is the rebels who lift the Common Man above himself, who show him the way to a better life. The true rebel—and perhaps we might say member of the Remnant—is one who loves his fellow men in his attempt to exalt their living. No true teacher, no true leader can be contemptuous, for contempt only turns in on itself and destroys contemned and contemner alike.

Rebels have rough going. What we need is rebels who are willing to pay the price that rebels have always paid and must be expected to pay. "Our faith," says Canon Bell "in the potentialities of the Common Man is still as great as is our fear and detestation of the blather of the crowd. Against the latter we must be rebels, not because we hate the Common Man but because we love him deeply."

Canon Bell has sounded the trumpet as he has sounded it before. Agree with him or not, follow him or not, you cannot ignore him or his argument. How much his little book moves you will depend to some extent on your nerve.

S. A. N.

Gray, James, *The University of Minnesota 1851-1951*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951. Pp. XVII-609, illustrated.

Minnesota-formed frontier thinkers in educational philosophy—whether they be identified as college presidents, deans, or professors—are legion. Indeed for many persons the qualities of radiation displayed by the North Star state in matters educational are beginning to savor of the legendary. An anecdote culled from the present text relates that one day John Dewey traversed a group of Columbia professors even then discussing the backgrounds of distinguished educators. "Another former Minnesota man," commented the spokesman, nodding in the direction of John Dewey. "Is there any one who hasn't at some time been at Minnesota?" asked an awe-struck listener. "Is it some kind of divine law?"

Anecdotes such as the above enliven the pages of James Gray's superbly documented and refreshingly readable account of the progress charted by Minnesota during the span of a century. Analyzing the flow of concepts, attitudes, interests, controversies, and experimental ideas that continue un-

ceasingly to invigorate one of the largest cultural centers of the world, Professor Gray has written a text not only for those who cherish Minnesota as an Alma Mater but for all students of educational philosophy and the history of ideas. What might have been a chronicle of dusty facts and events, a study of structures that would serve merely as framework, or an evaluation weighted in the direction of statistical analysis, becomes in the expert hands of Professor Gray, a warmly human study of the men of wisdom and courage who led the University to its present eminence, an exploration of the principles that govern tax-supported universities, and a radiant tribute to education as the bright beacon of democracy.

"A world within a world, the fourth largest and most independent community" in Minnesota, the University today under the dynamic leadership of its eighth president, James Lewis Morrill, channels activity through fourteen units spread throughout the state. This activity penetrates deeply into the lives of farmers, miners, foresters, business men, scientists, housewives, and mothers, just as surely as it permeates the thought of students living in residential Minneapolis or St. Paul, or temporarily established in the University section that touches the Mississippi.

Free of the timorous traditions of the past, experimentally minded, rich in community support and respect, Minnesota has since its precarious beginning displayed striking independence as well as co-operative inter-group enterprise. What may seem to others "a strange welter of locomotive rails, Nobel Prize winners, dairies, armies in blue jeans, architectural extravagances and austerities, Chaucerian scholars, testing bureaus, dental clinics, leaders of Shakespearean controversy, atomic research projects and medical foundation," this is Minnesota.

Created in 1851 by legislative decree in the third year of Minnesota's territorial expansion, the University early acquired a grant of land under the Morrill Act of 1862 with the understanding that the study of agriculture and the mechanical arts would be encouraged. Minnesota's first president, William Watts Folwell, "knight errant" and architect of the future, was to advocate a departure from conventional New England patterns and to visualize the "genuine University" as a "federation of professional schools" that would train young people to be "engineers, merchants, architects, chemists, miners and metallurgists, pharmacutists, dyers, manufacturers, navigators, journalists, naturalists, astronomers . . . horticulturists, and agriculturists." Anticipating in thought secondary and junior college lines of demarcation, he pictured the state University as the crowning jewel of an integrated state system of education.

Cyrus Northrop the "peace maker," benign and adaptable, succeeded Folwell "the pace maker." Northrop's regime was to witness consolidation and growth, the establishment of an agricultural experiment station in the heart of America's "bread and butter" region, sponsorship of pioneer

courses in home economics and nursing, and the rise of medicine in a state destined to derive lustre from the Mayo clinic.

A deep and probing intelligence, creative imagination and administrative diplomacy, these were the qualities that distinguished George Edgar Vincent, famed "merchant of light." In his quest for co-ordination, Minnesota's third president reorganized the Schools of Law, Medicine, Education, Liberal Arts, and Graduate study, sponsored analytical research facilities for the evaluation of University procedures, and created the Extension Division so noted for the wealth and flexibility of its offerings today. Vincent's vigorously sustained interest in the J. B. Johnston philosophy that advocated "the differential treatment of students" was to culminate later in the flowering of the personnel point of view at Minnesota. Cogently stated was the ideal held forth by Vincent: "If the University is true to its mission, it will put all of its resources and its trained experts at the service of the community . . . the university must never waver from the position of the unimpassioned, unprejudiced seeker for the truth, all of it and that alone."

Striking indeed is the parallel between life in contemporary America and life on the Minnesota campus during the 1917-1920 regime of Marion Le Roy Burton. World tensions, the intricacies of military service, loyalty investigations, issues of academic freedom, experimental army programs for the student-soldier, developments such as these proved almost all-absorbing. Yet Burton promoted new interests too. High priorities on his list of projected buildings were ascribed to a pending Northrop Auditorium and to potential centers for the fine arts. "A richer student life means that better intellectual work will appear in the classroom. When the human spirit is awakened, it spontaneously acquires new interest in everything that is beautiful and good and true. A rich, abundant, unified, coherent student life is essential to the attainment of our primary purposes."

Of deep contemporary concern too are issues noted in the chapters devoted to Lotus Delta Coffman, that educational statesman whose measure of "common sense amounted to genius." With the assertion that "humanity's period of transition is continuous and permanent," Minnesota's fifth president faced with inner equanimity furors roused by the pros and cons of evolution, threats of text book analysis or of other forms of control, and irritations over military drill. Foreshadowing current philosophy, he asserted that: "The constant extension of education to lower economic levels epitomizes the struggle of the race for human freedom. It is the struggle of the masses to secure an education, combined with their ability to profit by it, and to use it intelligently that gives us confidence in the . . . integrity of democracy. Everyone recognizes that such education is expensive, but the expense is insignificant in comparison with the enormous gain society receives from it."

Animated by these objectives, and deeply concerned over the dangers of specialized departmental "fragmentation," he vigorously sustained the experimental movement towards general education in which Minnesota has so eminently pioneered. With the sponsorship of the University College for superior students, the General College, and the center for continuation study, many leavening influences became active. The Institute of Technology was founded, the energies of "federal students" were channeled, and self-appraisal with resultant re-orientation, this was strengthened as a two-fold attribute of the Minnesota way of life.

During a three year incumbency as President, Guy Stanton Ford was to co-ordinate University activities many of which had already been nurtured by him as Graduate Dean. "A fisher of men," he had during his long term of service attracted to Minnesota colleagues of superior ability, and had won support from the great foundations for many a Minnesota-sponsored pilot project. Under his aegis, the Graduate school had pursued in highly effective manner a two-fold aim: superior teaching and superior research. During his presidency, the Schools of Business Administration and Journalism acquired imposing headquarters of their own. Ford's successor, Walter Castella Coffey, was also in a position to view the institution as an organismic unit, yet make in addition his own personal contribution as a leader in American agriculture.

References to the men and women who in many varied spheres have helped to make Minnesota what it is cavalcade through the book. The magic names of Pillsbury, Snyder, Nachtrieb, Firkins, Burton, Sanford, Comstock, Owre, Stoll, Phelps, Beach, Willey, and Paige share honors with the "Golden Gophers," the builders of the Owatonna Art project, the formulators of area studies, and the drill-intent young ladies of Company Q. Insight and humor abound, and even a non-Minnesota faculty member is apt to relish the gentle chiding Vincent once gave a querulous University Senate. "Gentlemen," he said, "I'm sure you will agree with me that this argument has degenerated into a cat fight, and I shall end it by putting the question to a vote. All those in favor say Miaow."

Like family portraits in a gallery, the etchings of Minnesota presidents evoke the cumulative past in which the University flourished, the past which traced the design for a modern University. Each leader successfully wove significant themes into the rich and full orchestration of ideas that undergird any adventure of the spirit. Having come of age at this dramatic mid-century moment of time, Minnesota undoubtedly stands at the threshold of another refreshing cycle of adventure into the realm of ideas.

MELVA LIND, *Dean of Women*
Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

Stinnett, T. M. (Ed.), *Evaluating Progress and Charting the Future of Teacher Education*, Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 108.

Since 1946 a group broadly representative of the teaching profession has been a significant force in improving the quality and in unifying the goals of teacher education in this country. Sensitive to mounting attacks on and within the public schools and teacher education, this body, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, undertook an examination of these criticisms and a further upbuilding of the profession in its annual conference at Kalamazoo, Michigan, last summer. Principal report of this conference is the small volume named above.

One of the current criticisms was answered by Section I when they accepted the view that teacher education does have distinctive characteristics that need clarification and interpretation. They restated the importance of free public schools and pointed out that democracy needs interpretation for each generation. Implied is the belief that education should help improve the quality of democracy in daily living. This group recommended "a functional program of professional education integrated throughout with general education and mastery of the area of specialization." Paramount importance was attached to laboratory experiences, which should start early in the teacher education program, be integrated with educational theory courses, and gradually lead to full-time student teaching.

Those in Section II believed teachers should accept responsibility for some of the lack of prestige of the profession. "We are frankly not educating teachers for the world in which we live," the analyst for the group declared. They agreed that "each educator needs to take a more active part and become better informed in the affairs of the community." They advocated many ways of building prestige for education, among them being attention by each teacher to "ten points suggested for daily Christian living" and "interpretation to the public of the objectives and importance of public education in a democracy."

"Open and friendly discussions" between liberal arts teachers and professional education people were advocated by Section III as a means of resolving differences among educators and of improving teacher education programs. After setting up a list of fifteen competencies "which all teachers need," they agreed that the future teacher's general education should develop social competency and functional knowledge of many fields; they challenged the validity of graduation requirements including subject specialization that do not contribute toward these goals. They agreed with Section I that an "integrated program" of four or five years of teacher education is preferable to four years of liberal arts followed by a year of practical experience in school situations. "Every professional course should be coupled

with laboratory experiences of some kind," they decided. A campus laboratory school helps make this worthy goal possible, they might have added. They inserted an appropriate word of caution to college teachers: they should "practice in the classroom the philosophy and methods which are conducive to good teaching rather than just tell the prospective teacher how it should be done."

They gave partial approval to the proposal, now in effect in at least one state, of a single curriculum for the preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers. This section felt that settlement of this and other issues in pre-service programs should follow careful evaluation of the programs rather than criticism unsupported by evidence. They deprecated lack of supervision, particularly for beginning teachers, and recommended that graduate programs be based upon recognized needs of teachers in service.

Admitting that research and exchange of experiences are needed in the area of recruitment and selection of teachers, the participants believed that colleges should be more highly selective in admitting students to teacher education programs. Parents and the staffs of schools and teacher education institutions should share responsibility for selecting and retaining teachers, they agreed. Wider use of democratic methods of administering the schools would help dissuade many teachers from leaving the profession, they suggested.

Finally, those discussing current issues decided that, in general, standards for teacher certification should be raised, for "higher standards result in better teaching, higher salaries, and thus more teachers." They made a plea for greater reciprocity in certification among the various states.

That the school, with other institutions and social groups, should face and help solve controversial issues was the consensus of Section IV. This means prospective teachers should be prepared to wrestle with such school, community, national, and world problems. One effective preparation, this writer suggests, is guided participation in solution of such questions as a college student through responsible membership in student organizations and student-faculty committees. Among the many ways named by the participants for developing competence in this area were: providing students with opportunities for studying community agencies, encouraging them to give service to their community, teaching them how to analyze propaganda, working with both colleagues and students to improve their ability to solve problems democratically, helping to instill a freedom from fear in dealing with such issues yet wise judgment to seek help of colleagues and others when help is needed.

Section V accepted as the primary challenge to the profession the "nation-wide co-operative development of the criteria and processes by which the quality of all teacher education programs can be insured." They devoted their sessions to discussion of the now approved National Council for Ac-

creditation of Teacher Education. Among plans for the future are development of a philosophy and a code of ethics for the profession and new ways of setting qualitative standards for evaluating teacher education institutions.

For those states having commissions on teacher education and professional standards, reports of this significant conference have doubtless been made through these commissions to the groups represented by their members. Particularly in states lacking these commissions, this volume should be circulated and its contents discussed at meetings of parent groups, boards of education, school faculties, staffs of teacher education institutions, and state departments of education.

Foreboding statements about criticisms of teacher education appeared in both the foreword and the keynote address in this volume. They led the writer to anticipate vigorous discussions of attacks on the schools by groups outside the profession. None was identified in the published report. That the planning committee succeeded in their effort to reconcile divergent views within the profession is not doubted. In fact, the reader of this and the three other reports of the work of the Kalamazoo conference is impressed by the broad areas of agreement among those engaged in the preparation of teachers. Following are brief reviews of the other publications emanating from this conference.

KENNETH A. BROWNE,
*State Teachers College,
Towson, Maryland*

Stinnett, T. M. (Ed.), *Discussion Seminars of the Seventh Annual National Conference on Teacher Education and Professional Standards*, Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 46.

Educators and laymen in states that lack commissions on teacher education might gain needed incentives by reading the report of the fourth seminar herein. It describes work procedures of commissions in Ohio, Georgia, California, and Kansas. Laymen at the conference expressed their views which included a plea for more effective communication between schoolmen and laymen. Also considered were graduate and experimental programs, including a somewhat reassuring report of the professional wisdom with which Arkansas educators are administering the Ford Foundation financed fifth year teacher education program.

Now available in reprint from the National Commission is the *report of conversion programs* in use and recommended for alleviating the teacher shortage. It was published as "Conversion programs for Elementary Teachers" in the December, 1952, *Journal of Teacher Education*. Following principles that emphasize adherence to high standards along with flexibility, the group recommended that special programs be set up throughout the country for (1) experienced teachers in need of refresher work, (2)

liberal arts college graduates wishing to enter the elementary school field, and (3) graduates of secondary education programs. For the latter two groups 30 to 40, and 20 to 30, semester hours of academic and professional work were advised, respectively, for full certification as elementary school teachers.

KENNETH A. BROWNE,
*State Teachers College,
Towson, Maryland*

Stinnett, T. M. (Ed.), *Teacher Selective Recruitment Programs*, Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 24.

Here is a "how-to-do-it action bulletin", for use by all who are concerned about the possible disastrous effect upon our American democracy of the growing teacher shortage. Prepared by a nationally-representative committee at the Kalamazoo conference of TEPS last summer, it outlines procedures for concerted efforts from national to local levels by lay and professional groups to recruit enough competent teachers for the mounting school population. Significant were the insistence upon adherence to sound guidance principles connoted by the term "selective recruitment", and the recognition of the fact that the public generally (represented by boards of education, Parent Teachers Association groups, and the like) must become actively interested if the needed nationwide program is to succeed. Implied but not prominently evident in the recommended procedures is one which this ex-college admissions director believes essential: a systematic plan of person-to-person interviews by school guidance and college admissions counselors.

A useful bibliography of recruitment literature is included.

KENNETH A. BROWNE,
*State Teachers College,
Towson, Maryland*

Brumbaugh, A. J. and Berdie, Ralph F., *Student Personnel Programs In Transition*, Washington: ACE, 1952. Pp. iv + 44.

This is a brief and readable account of the activities of campus consultants on student personnel work sponsored by the ACE, who visited various colleges and universities during four years. The consultation program is described, and then we are given a list of purposes of a student personnel program in the light of which the consultations were made. There is a resume of prevailing conditions and available personnel and then a discussion of recommendations made to the colleges by the consultants.

The booklet takes cognizance of difficulties in establishing the personnel program and also prints a number of comments and criticisms. In spite of the fact that it is only 44 pages long, it is a valuable booklet to keep on the shelf.

S. A. N.

In the Journals

E. T.

1952 Fall Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions, the annual statistical report of the Office of Education, shows some unexpected figures. The increase in the number of new students attending college for the first times is large (13.7%). The entering class is the fifth largest in the history of American education. The increase in new students, which was reflected in all types of institutions, is the first since 1946. One of the possible explanations given by Mr. Robert C. Story is the wide publicity given to the need for persons with college-level preparation, especially for technically trained personnel. Other reasons given are the slight increase in the number of high school graduates, the increased tendency for high school graduates to go to college, the return of Korean veterans, intensified efforts by colleges to attract students, and, especially for women students, favorable economic conditions. It is difficult to assess the effect of Selective Service policies.

The total enrollment in all institutions is 1.5% over that of 1951. The university enrollment decline (1.7%) is probably most closely related to the loss of veteran students. The junior college enrollment, which is more directly affected by fluctuations in the size of the entering classes, increased 19.7%. Mr. Story concludes that the number of students may fluctuate up or down depending on the conditions of the moment; but in the long run, it appears that college enrollment will continue to increase.

The number of women initially entering college in the fall of 1952 is the largest class ever to enroll. Although the new student increase is greater for men (15.5%) than for women (11.2%), the total enrollment of male students decreased (.8%) while the total enrollment of women increased (6.1%). The proportion of women in the total college population is steadily returning to pre-war levels. In 1952, women accounted for 35.4% of the total enrollment as compared with 40.2% in 1939.

Historical Summary of Higher Education: 1889-90 to 1949-50, a statistical table prepared by Henry G. Badger of the Office of Education, is in the December 15 issue of *Higher Education*. The rapid and continuous increase in numbers of faculty members, resident students, and degrees conferred over the past fifty years is very evident and impressive when presented in this clear and concise table. As an example of the kind of information you can get from the table, 816 men earned master's or second professional degrees in 1889-90, the number increased to 16,508 in 1939-40, dropped back to 4,711 in 1943-44, and sky-rocketed to 41,220 in 1949-50. At the same

time, master's or second professional degrees earned by women rose from 193 in 1889-90 to 16,963 in 1949-50 with only a slight drop during the war years.

The same issue of Higher Education carries the summary of Robert C. Story's 1952 *Fall College Enrollment* statistics mentioned above.

Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1952, the annual report by President Raymond Walters of the University of Cincinnati, appeared in the December 20 issue of *School and Society*. Figures are for approved universities and four-year colleges only. The total enrollment in these institutions decreased 1.5% from the fall of 1951 while the total enrollment in *all* institutions of higher education increased 1.5% according to the Office of Education statistics. The number of freshmen in each of the five broad fields of study—engineering, teacher education, commerce and business, agriculture, and arts and sciences—has increased. The field of engineering has by far the highest percentage of increase (32.7% for men and 34.5% for women). There was a relatively high percentage of increase in numbers of women students in commerce and business (19.6%). The increase in arts and sciences was the lowest of the five fields (5.5% for men and 7.1% for women). The 2.8% decrease in part-time enrollment must be considered in the light of the 4.6% increase in part-time enrollment of 1951 over 1950. The twenty-five largest institutions are ranked with and without part-time students.

President Walters includes statistics on 1952 attendance in Japanese universities and colleges. Statistics of British universities and colleges, given for 1950-51, include division by subjects of study pursued, by part and full-time students, and by sex. "Of all 85,314 full-time students in these (British) institutions, 72.5% were 'assisted students,' that is they 'held scholarships, exhibitions or other awards, whether from public or private funds, providing wholly or in part for the payment of their fees or other expenses.'" The fifteen largest British universities and colleges with the full-time enrollment in each are listed.

Higher Education Endowments is the title of a short article in the December 15 issue of *Higher Education*. For the year 1949-50, earnings of \$96,341,000 were reported on higher education endowment funds which exceed \$2.6 billion in principal. The 44 colleges which reported endowments of \$10 million or more in the year 1950-51 are listed. The figures given are from the American Council on Education reference book *American Universities and Colleges*. Harvard, with an endowment of more than \$241 million, has \$100 million more than any other college. Yale, the University of Texas, and Columbia University also report endowments of over \$100 million. Earnings on these funds contribute a great deal toward the support of higher education.

Is Our Common Man Too Common? asks Joseph Wood Krutch in the January 10 issue of *Saturday Review*. The ideal we are pursuing now is a minimum cultural literacy for all. Americans point with pride to the large numbers who read the selections of the book clubs, attend concerts of serious music, listen to debates, symphonies and operas on the radio, and earn college degrees. We are in the Age of the Common Man. The vital question is whether we can have an Age of the Common Man without making it an Age of the Common Denominator.

Nothing but good could seem to come of universal opportunity. But when we make commonness a virtue and praise the average, and when we measure by quantitative standards alone, the Good can become the enemy of the Best. Statistics, now the most important tool of investigation, emphasize the significance of averages and medians. "What usually exists or usually happens establishes The Law, and The Law is soon thought of as identical with The Truth." Since it is the excellent, not the average, which is really important in all the arts, statistical studies are inappropriate in this aspect of the cultural condition of a civilization.

Mass media in America, with the exception of the phonograph, tend to be used to communicate only what the greatest number of people seem to want. The mechanical and economic facts which seem to give the "purveyors of mediocrity" a monopoly in movies, radio, television, and even in the publishing business, may be changed. But what seems more serious to Mr. Krutch is the confusion of The Best with the most widely and the most generally acceptable as it reveals "a spiritual confusion which is subtle and insidious as well as fundamental."

Mr. Krutch deplures exaltation of the common denominator by educators. Starting with the kindergarten, the ideal of "Excellence" has been replaced by "Normality." "Adjustment" has come to mean conformity. Instead of establishing a fixed standard, examination marks and the amount of work required are determined by the usual level of achievement or accomplishment of the average student. Instead of asking what constitutes the best college education, many professors of education are asking what most of the students want and what books the largest number have read. The success of our educational system is often measured in terms of how many go to college rather than how much the average college education amounts to. "Ultimate responsibility for the future rests with the thinkers and the educators whose most important social task at the moment is to define democratic culture in some fashion which will both reserve a place for uncommon excellence and, even in connection with the largest masses, emphasize the highest rather than the lowest common denominator.

Reported to Us

A. H. P.

Colleges and Universities

Columbia University has created a Council of the School of General Studies composed of leaders of the business and financial community to "advise and assist the university in meeting the insistent demands from important segments of the community for continuing education during adult years."

An elementary education curriculum fully integrated with the liberal arts program is in operation at Dunbarton College of Holy Cross, Washington, D.C.

Eight more eastern colleges have joined the twenty-one colleges already co-operating with the Harvard Graduate School of Education in a program designed to increase the number of qualified graduates entering public school teaching.

The University of Illinois has made student loans of more than two million dollars in the last 35 years, and only two-tenths of one per cent has been uncollectable. Income from the loans has not only covered collection expenses, including losses, but has added \$139,400 to the principal of the loan fund which amounts to \$533,941.

Lafayette College has made comprehensive examinations a requirement for graduation for all arts and science majors.

For the purpose of adequately recognizing and retaining faculty members who have gained national and regional distinction, Louisiana State University has established Boyd Professorships with salary increases of at least \$1,000 an academic year and "in no case shall the salary of a 'Boyd Professor' be less than \$9,600 per academic year." The plan is expected to promote better teaching by encouraging a prominent professor to remain in his field instead of being attracted away from teaching by lucrative administrative posts.

The first accreditation of the 33-member State University of New York as an entity has been granted by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools after a two-year study. State University was created

in 1948 embodying the state colleges and institutions, and accredited status was sought beginning in 1950.

The State University of New York will waive its right to collect \$90 a year in fees above regular charges from Korean war veterans enrolling under the new G.I. Bill of Rights.

The University of Toledo has a faculty committee on academic policy which will make recommendations on admissions, courses, class sizes, basic requirements for degree programs, and the place of physical education and athletics in the academic program.

The University of Utah, accepting a proposal submitted by the Associated Students Executive Council, has adopted a campus-wide noon hour with no classes scheduled. This arrangement resumes a plan in operation prior to the war.

Whitman College has made a tabulation of room and board charges in 305 American colleges and universities. The average monthly charge in 1952 in 64 state colleges and universities was listed as \$59.13; in 47 state teachers colleges, \$46.40; in three municipal universities, \$58.00; in 190 private colleges and universities, \$60.73. In the survey 275 institutions indicated an increase in room and board charges ranging from 30 to 55% since 1947.

Reports from Associations, Organizations, and Government Departments

To give a new impetus to effective use of television as a medium for mass education, nine midwestern universities have formed the Allied Universities TV Council, with plans under way for a co-operative approach to this new educational field.

In the 1952 edition of "American Universities and Colleges" published by the American Council on Education, forty-four institutions reported endowments of \$10 million or more in the year 1950-51.

The Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities celebrated the 90th anniversary year of the passage of the Morrill Act establishing the land-grant institutions, signed by Abraham Lincoln on July 2, 1862, at its November, 1952, convention.

Included in a number of actions taken, the association reaffirmed its previous indorsement of the basic principles of the Korean G.I. Bill, as designed to eliminate both abuses and interference with educational institu-

tions inherent in the World War II program and to restore normal student-institutional relationships. It also again asked that public educational institutions with retirement systems be allowed to participate in Federal old-age and survivors' insurance programs without having to abolish their present retirement systems; a privilege now denied only to public employees.

The association also took a major step toward possible unification with the National Association of State Universities, by amending its Constitution to open membership to any state university now affiliated with the latter association.

The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association in its 1951-52 report states that substantial increases in the number of students admitted to medical school, in total enrollments, and in the annual number of graduates were recorded last year, with new highs being established in all three categories. The numbers reported include freshman class, 7,441 students; total enrollment, 27,076; and graduates, 6,080. The average annual number of medical graduates was 5,140 in the ten years preceding World War II. To make possible such an expansion of medical education, an additional capital investment of over \$300 millions has been made since World War II. The report states that for the first time in recent years there were fewer than three applicants for each available place in the freshman classes of the medical schools. When only the students applying to medical schools for the first time are counted there were fewer than two applicants for every available place. The report again presents statistics to show that contrary to the popular conception many students with B and C averages in college gain admission to medical school. Thirty per cent of the medical students admitted to the 1951-52 freshman class had A averages, a drop of 10 per cent from the previous year.

The second annual Midwest Educators' Conference, with an attendance of 300 college officials representing 100 institutions in seven midwest states, voted a dynamic program aimed at eradicating discriminatory practices in colleges, universities and professional schools.

Five national groups in the field of education, representing universities and colleges, state departments of education, classroom teachers and administrators, and boards of education, have created a voluntary agency to maintain high standards for the qualifications of teachers in the United States. Organized as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, plans for improving the preparation of teachers in universities and colleges will be promoted.

In its December 14, 1952, issue the *New York Times* carries an article "Deficits Persist in Colleges as Enrollment Rises 1.4%." A table on the

1952-53 status of colleges, based on replies to a questionnaire from 1,285 institutions compares 1951-52 and 1952-53 total enrollment by type of institution, freshman enrollment by type of institution, and faculty members by type of institution. There is included information concerning fee increases, balanced budgets, fund-raising campaigns and building programs, and a one-year comparison of fees and room and board charges by type of institution.

The Office of Education has prepared an interesting "Historical Summary of Higher Education: 1889-90 to 1949-50," reported in *Higher Education*, Vol. IX, No. 8, December 15, 1952, which lists figures by decades from 1889-90 to 1949-50 concerning faculty, resident college enrollment, degrees conferred, and finances.

Preinduction examinations given to 1,520,905 Selective Service registrants during the first year of the Korean conflict, July, 1950, to June,

PER CENT OF SELECTIVE-SERVICE REGISTRANTS GIVEN PREINDUCTION
EXAMINATIONS WHO FAILED THE ARMED FORCES QUALIFICATION
TEST JULY, 1950—JUNE, 1951¹

State	Per Cent	State	Per Cent
Continental United States	19.2	North Dakota	13.0
Utah	2.1	New York	13.3
Minnesota	2.2	Michigan	13.9
Oregon	3.2	Vermont	14.5
Massachusetts	4.8	Missouri	17.4
Idaho	5.0	Maine	18.0
Iowa	5.0	District of Columbia	19.6
New Hampshire	5.4	Maryland	19.7
Montana	5.7	Delaware	20.0
Washington	5.7	Arizona	20.4
Kansas	6.4	Oklahoma	21.0
Wyoming	7.0	Texas	22.1
Indiana	7.3	West Virginia	24.5
South Dakota	7.5	Kentucky	25.6
Wisconsin	7.6	New Mexico	29.3
Nebraska	7.7	Florida	31.7
Illinois	9.3	Virginia	34.7
California	9.3	Georgia	36.1
Colorado	9.4	Tennessee	37.2
Nevada	9.6	North Carolina	37.5
Pennsylvania	9.8	Alabama	43.1
Rhode Island	10.5	Mississippi	44.8
New Jersey	11.2	Arkansas	47.4
Connecticut	12.7	Louisiana	47.5
Ohio	12.9	South Carolina	58.3

¹ Includes rejections for failure to pass AFQT only, and AFQT in combination with other reasons.

1951, resulted in 535,625 or 35.2 per cent failing to qualify for military service. The single most significant cause for disqualification was failure to pass the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT). For nearly 300,000 men or 19 per cent of those examined this was the principal cause of rejection. Striking inequalities in educational opportunity are revealed in the State figures showing percentages of Selective Service registrants failing the Armed Forces Qualification Test which ranged from a low of approximately 2 per cent in Utah and Minnesota and 3 per cent in Oregon to a high of 58 per cent in South Carolina and approximately 47 per cent in Arkansas and Louisiana.

Twenty-one Texas church-related colleges and universities, representing six denominations, have formed a foundation to solicit financial gifts from business corporations.

A book, "Your Opportunity," edited and published by Theodore S. Jones, Milton, Massachusetts, carried an extensive listing of awards, competitions, scholarships and loans available in colleges and universities, through organizations, foundations, business and educational institutions.

News Concerning Registrars and Admissions Officers

Mrs. George R. Boyer, who as Miss Anna Le Fevre was Bradley University Registrar for twenty-three years, died last summer at her home in Gibson City at the age of eighty-three years. Mrs. Boyer had been Registrar at Bradley University from 1912 until her retirement in 1935, at which time she was given the title of Registrar Emeritus. She was married soon afterwards to Dr. George R. Boyer. Before coming to Bradley University, Mrs. Boyer served as secretary to the Dean of Education at the University of Chicago from 1902 until 1912. She was one of the three committee members who organized the Illinois branch of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars in 1922, and was later appointed historian. Upon her retirement from Bradley University, she completed the historical sketch of the State Association from 1922 to 1939.

John M. Daniels has been appointed Director of the Summer Session at Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Miss Helen H. Burgoyne has resigned her position as Registrar at the University of Cincinnati. She will be married late in April to Dr. Albert Joyce Riker, formerly graduate student and instructor at the University of Cincinnati and now an internationally-known plant pathologist at the University of Wisconsin.

Miss Burgoyne has been an active and loyal member of our association

for many years, having served in all the offices of the Ohio Association from treasurer to president, and as second vice-president of the national organization.

Her many friends extend best wishes as she takes up a new career in Madison, Wisconsin.

F. Taylor Jones, formerly Registrar, Drew University, is now with the Middle States Commission on Higher Education.

Robert Calvert, Jr., former Registrar, Hanover College, Indiana, has returned as Dean of Men after the completion of doctoral studies in Teachers College, Columbia University.

Milton J. Schlagenhauf, Director of Admissions, Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts, and recently named Director of Public Relations and Development for the University, has been succeeded by Gilbert C. Garland, formerly Dean, Larson College, New Haven, Connecticut.

At Pratt Institute Richard Wood has been appointed Assistant Registrar and Director of Admissions.

Robert A. McGrath is Acting Registrar at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, succeeding Marjorie Shank.

It is with sorrow that we announce the death of Mrs. Nystrom, wife of Mr. Leonard Nystrom, Registrar, Southern Methodist University, on October 31, 1952, after a long illness. His many friends in the Association express their sympathy to Mr. Nystrom in his great loss.

Stephens College "News Reporter," Volume 12, Number 3, December, 1952, carries an article by P. Randolph Armstrong, Registrar, entitled "Individualized Registration Techniques Eliminate Wasted Time, Confusion."

The Reverend Edward J. Fitzsimons, Professor of Philosophy, Trinity College, Burlington, Vermont, has been appointed Director of Admissions.

AACRAO—39th Annual Meeting

Radisson Hotel, Minneapolis

Program

SUNDAY, APRIL 19

- 1:00 P.M.-5:00 P.M.—Registration, Mezzanine Floor
2:30 P.M.—General Convention Committee Meeting, Spanish Room
Committee on Evaluation and Standards
Special Projects Committee Meeting
4:30 P.M.—Executive Committee Meeting, Spanish Room
6:00 P.M.—Budget Committee Meeting, Room one
7:00 P.M.—Meetings of Convention Committees: Banquet, Convention
News, Exhibits, Hospitality and Introductions, Housing, Mimeo-
graphing & Secretarial Service, Program, Publicity, Promotion and
Press Relations, Registration and Information, Tours and Entertain-
ment
8:00 P.M.—Sub-committee on the Adequacy of Transcripts

MONDAY, APRIL 20

- 9:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M.—Registration, Mezzanine Floor
9:00-10:25 A.M.—Meetings of Standing Committees
Clinic for New Registrars, Ira M. Smith, Chairman
Constitution and By-Laws, Ira M. Smith, Chairman
International Scholarships, Enock C. Dyrness, Chairman
Office Forms, Leo M. Hauptman, Chairman
Public Relations, John E. Fellows, Chairman
Evaluation and Standards, Ralph E. McWhinnie, Chairman
Co-operation with Governmental Agencies, George P. Tuttle, Chairman
10:30 A.M.—Committee on Regional Associations Meeting
11:30 A.M.—Meeting of Workshop Leaders
12:15 A.M.—Executive Committee Luncheon Meeting, Spanish Room
2:30 P.M.—Pre-Convention Tour of the University of Minnesota
5:30 P.M.—Smorgasbord, Junior Ballroom, Coffman Memorial Union,
University of Minnesota

TUESDAY, APRIL 21

- 9:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M.—Registration
9:00 A.M.-11:30 A.M.—General Session, Grand Ballroom
Convening the Meeting—True Pettengill, Convention Chairman
Presiding—Emma E. Deters, President
Invocation—Reverend Donald J. Gormley, Registrar, College of St.
Thomas

Address of Welcome—James Lewis Morrill, President, University of Minnesota.

Address—"Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education," George Lynn Cross, President, University of Oklahoma

Announcements.

12:00 M.—Luncheon and Clinic for New Registrars and Admissions Officers, Junior Ballroom, Ira Smith, *Chairman*

Panel Group Leaders—J. L. Quick, Univ. of Pittsburgh; George W. Rosenlof, Univ. of Nebraska; William F. Adams, Univ. of Alabama

Table Group Leaders—Roy W. Bixler, Drake University; Asa Carter, Bradley University; Enock C. Dyrness, Wheaton College; Adelaide Gundlach, Berea College; Mrs. Gretchen M. Happ, The Principia; Floyd W. Hoover, University of Nebraska; Fred L. Kerr, University of Arkansas; George N. Lauer, Central Michigan College of Education; C. Zaner Leshner, University of Arizona; J. R. Little, University of Colorado; J. Everett Long, West Virginia University; H. Y. McGown, University of Texas; S. L. McGraw, Concord College; R. E. McWhinnie, University of Wyoming; W. L. Mayer, North Carolina State College; G. E. Metz, Clemson College; Stella Morris, Colorado A. & M. College; Alma H. Preinkert, University of Maryland; John M. Rhoads, Temple University; Richard H. Schmidt, University of Akron; E. C. Seyler, University of Illinois; Kermit Smith, Michigan State College; William H. Strain, Indiana University

12:15 P.M.—Executive Committee Luncheon, Flame Room

2:00 P.M.—Topical Workshops

Chairman, Charles E. Harrell, Indiana University

1. The Registrar and Admissions Officer in Administration. Richard L. Tuthill, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.
2. Machine Techniques in Admission, Registration, and Recording. B. Hopkins Moses, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.
3. Policies, Practices and Problems in Admission. Elsie Brennehan, Illinois State Normal College, Normal, Illinois.
4. The Registrar and Admissions Officer in the Liberal Arts College. Allen C. Conger, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.
5. The Registrar and His Publications: Schedules, Bulletins, etc. C. O. Williams, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania.
6. High School-College Relations: Promotional Publications. Claude Simpson, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington.
7. Veterans Affairs and Selective Service. Theodore Mercer, Bob Jones University, Greenville, South Carolina.

5:30-7:00 P.M.—Reception, Gold Room; Courtesy of *Time* and *Life* Magazines

7:00 P.M.—Banquet,* Grand Ballroom

* Afternoon dress for women; business suits for men.

Presiding—Emma E. Deters, President
 Toastmaster—Roy Armstrong, University of North Carolina
 Invocation—The Rev. George S. Siudy, First Congregational Church,
 Minneapolis
 Music—St. Olaf Choir, Prof. Olaf C. Christiansen, conducting
 Address—Dean Theodore C. Blegen, University of Minnesota "Minnesota's Past Through Contemporary Eyes"

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 22

7:30 A.M.—Breakfast Meeting of Past Presidents, Spanish Room
 9:00 A.M.—General Session, Grand Ballroom
 Presiding—J. Everett Long, West Virginia University
 Report of the Nominating Committee
 Election of Officers
 Report on the new adequate transcript guide
 10:30 A.M.-12:30 P.M.—Workshops (same rooms as for Tuesday Workshops)
 2:30 P.M.—Sightseeing Tours
 8:00 P.M.—Workshops, by size and types of Institutions (same rooms as for Tuesday P.M. and Wednesday A.M. Workshops), George L. Miller, *Chairman*, Wayne University

THURSDAY, APRIL 23

9:00 A.M. General Session, Grand Ballroom
 Presiding—Ronald B. Thompson, Vice President
 Address—William C. Smyser, Registrar, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
 Topic—Some Educational Dilemmas

Reports

Executive Committee, Items for Action, James Hitt, Secretary
 Workshops Summary, Charles Harrell
 Resolutions Committee, Sam A. Nock
 Budget Committee, John E. Fellows
 New Business
 Introduction of President for 1953-1954
 Announcement of Time and Place for 1955 Convention and Statement of Chairman of Local Arrangements for 1954 Convention in St. Louis
 Distribution of Workshop Reports
 Adjournment

12:15 P.M.—Executive Committee Luncheon
 2:00-5:00 P.M.—Meeting of Executive Committees New and Retiring, Spanish Room

Regional Associations

ASSOCIATION OF OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS

The 27th Annual Meeting of the Association of Ohio College Registrars was held at Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, October 15-17. The Ohio College Admissions Counselors at the invitation of the Association participated in all the meetings. The keynote of the entire meeting was "Admission Counseling".

So that all colleges and universities throughout the state interpret in the same way the Veterans Administration Form 7-1996a concerning Monthly Certification of Training the following motion after much discussion was unanimously passed and stands as here stated:

"At a meeting of the Ohio College Registrars held on October 17, 1952 there was a discussion of the responsibility of the institutions with respect to the signing of VA Form 7-1996a, Monthly Certification of Training".

"It was agreed that the statement in item (2) under section B namely: 'His conduct and progress are satisfactory according to the established standards and practices of this institution' should be taken at its face value, and that therefore, it is our understanding that the Veterans Administration does not require more detailed day-by-day absence reports or certifications by the individual institutions regarding attendance of Korean Veterans than are required for civilian students. This does not imply that each institution should not take ordinary precautions to see that any student does not have prolonged periods of absenteeism, unknown to the proper administrative officer".

The Association voted that the secretary be instructed to send a copy of this motion to all Regional Associations.

The following officers were elected for the year 1952-53: Mr. Jess J. Petty, Baldwin Wallace College, President; Mr. Raymond J. Fellingner, Xavier University, Vice President; Mr. Eugene R. Mittinger, John Carroll University, Secretary-Treasurer.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The meeting of December 5 and 6, 1952, marked the fifth anniversary of the association.

Following the plan initiated last year the opening session was on Friday evening at the Sheraton Plaza Hotel in Boston. An informal reception preceded the banquet at which 70 members were present. Our speakers for the evening were members of our own group. Each discussed briefly prob-

lems of concern to all of us and asked for comments from the floor. A fifteen minute word picture of NEACRAO, Past, Present, and Future, provided factual information, afforded entertainment, and outlined possible courses of action we might pursue. The meeting concluded early to allow further opportunity for members to visit and to seek or give help regarding individual problems.

The Saturday meeting was at Tufts College, Medford, Massachusetts. A coffee hour afforded another opportunity for visiting with old and new friends. Dr. Carmichael, the President of Tufts College, extended warm greetings to us and Mr. Ernest Whitworth from the ACE Commission on Accreditation brought greetings from his association and pertinent information about evaluation of credits for service organized educational programs. We then convened in two workshop groups to consider the current problems of registrars and admissions officers. A total of 130 members and guests attended.

A luncheon preceded the business meeting. The officers for 1953 were elected as follows: President, Miss Genevieve Pratt, Mt. Holyoke; Vice President, Mr. Percy Crane, University of Vermont; Secretary, Miss Esther Frary, American International College; Treasurer, Mr. Milton Noble, Brown University; Delegate to National Convention, Mr. Robert Hewes, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Dr. George R. Harrison, Dean of Science, MIT, concluded our session with an address in light vein on the imposing subject "Culture and the Liberal Sciences".

The old and new boards met following the close of the formal sessions. It was decided to continue the plan inaugurated last year of mailing out a correct list of members along with the minutes of the annual meeting and to substitute the COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY report on the National meeting for a report from our regional representative. It was also felt that we should continue the drive to increase our membership and to look for some project or projects which might be of professional assistance to us all and at the same time offer an opportunity for more people to be active in the work of the organization. The new board will appoint a special committee to study the suggestions presented by Mr. Gannett at this meeting.

NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

The twenty-ninth annual session of the North Carolina Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met on November 6, 1952, at the Robert E. Lee Hotel, Winston-Salem. Miss Era Lasley, Registrar at Guilford College, presided over the meeting.

Special guests were the college presidents and deans of the North Carolina colleges.

Mr. Ernest Whitworth was present, and spoke as Chairman of the Committee on Regional Associations of the AACRAO and also as Chairman of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, American Council on Education.

Mr. Roy Armstrong conducted an open forum. Matters discussed during this period were selective service policies, the registrar's need for contact with other than academic officers in schools from which students seek to transfer, admissions requirements and the allowance for deficiencies, the need for close contact and co-operation between junior and senior colleges, and the practice of conducting "College Days" in junior colleges.

At the luncheon which followed the business session, Dr. Mark Depp, pastor of the Centenary Methodist Church, Winston-Salem, addressed the group on the need for integrating religion in the educational process. Chancellor Robert House of the University of North Carolina brought a special message to those present on his harmonica.

The officers elected for the coming year were as follows: President, Miss Letha Brock, Greensboro College; Vice President, Mr. John Huff, Mars Hill College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Frances Golden, Peace College.

Directory of Regional Associations

ALABAMA:

President: J. Edwin Rush, Snead College
Secretary: Vernelle Crook, Howard College

ARKANSAS:

President: Victor Hill, Hendrix College
Secretary: G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College

COLORADO-WYOMING:

President: Stella Morris, Colorado A&M College
Secretary: Esther Lyman, Adams State College

ILLINOIS:

President: Linford A. Marquart, National College of Education
Secretary: Hertha Voss, Western Illinois State Teachers College

INDIANA:

President: C. R. Maxam, Butler University
Secretary: W. Earl Stoneburner, Indiana Central College

KANSAS:

President: Nathan P. Budd, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia
Secretary: Mae Rublee, Kansas Wesleyan

KENTUCKY:

President: Richard L. Tuthill, University of Kentucky
Secretary: Maple Moores, University of Kentucky

MICHIGAN:

President: George L. Miller, Wayne University
Secretary: Barbara H. Fausell, Jackson Junior College

MIDDLE STATES:

President: Maurice J. Murphy, Duquesne University
Secretary: J. Moreau Brown, New York University

MISSISSIPPI:

President: Annie McBride, Belhaven College
Secretary: Mildred Herrin, Hinds Junior College

MISSOURI:

President: Robert P. Foster, Northwest Missouri State College
Secretary: Margaret Mitchell, Joplin Junior College

NEBRASKA:

President: Jack N. Williams, The Creighton University
Secretary: Helen Luschei, Nebraska Wesleyan University

NEW ENGLAND:

President: Genevieve Pratt, Mt. Holyoke College
Secretary: Esther Fray, American International College

NORTH CAROLINA:

President: Letha Brock, Greensboro College
Secretary: Frances Golden, Peace College

OHIO:

President: Jess J. Petty, Baldwin-Wallace College
Secretary: E. R. Mittinger, John Carroll University

OKLAHOMA:

President: Sam Pool, Southeastern State College
Secretary: Ruth Arnold, University of Oklahoma

PACIFIC COAST:

President: William J. Dillon, University of San Francisco
Secretary: Howard Shontz, University of California, Davis

SOUTH CAROLINA:

President: Frank Logan, Wofford College
Secretary: Louisa Trawick, Converse College

SOUTHERN:

President: C. Lewis Rasor, Furman University
Secretary: Clarice Slusher, Virginia Polytechnic Institute

TENNESSEE:

President: M. P. Bowman, Austin Peay College
Secretary: Ralph Bryant, David Lipscomb College

TEXAS:

President: Truett K. Grant, Baylor University
Secretary: Marion Porter, Amarillo College

UPPER MIDWESTERN:

President: Ted McCarrell, University of Iowa
Secretary: Hazel Creal, Rochester Junior College

UTAH:

President: Glenn F. Blaser, Utah State Agricultural College
Secretary: Joseph A. Norton, University of Utah

VIRGINIA:

President: Ira E. Miller, Eastern Mennonite College
Secretary: Celene H. Gardner, Radford College

WEST VIRGINIA:

President: Luther E. Bledsoe, Marshall College
Secretary: F. E. Thornton, West Virginia Institute of Technology

WISCONSIN:

President: Quincy Doudna, Wisconsin State College, Stevens Point
Secretary: Elva Boettcher, Ripon College

Employment Service

The A.A.C.R.A.O. maintains a Committee on Professional Development, which serves as a clearing-house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The persons listed below are registered with this committee. Additional listings may be sent either to the Editor, at the Office of the Registrar, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, or to Dr. Fred Thomason, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn. The registration fee is \$3.00 which includes one publication on this page. Persons listing their names with the Committee should send with their application for listing, a copy of the advertisement (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For additional insertions beyond the first the charge is \$1.00 per issue. Remittance in full in favor of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should accompany the application.

The Committee on Professional Development is not an employment agency, and neither the Association nor its committee assumes any obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements.

Inquiries from prospective employers should be directed to Dr. Thomason at the address given above.

POSITION WANTED: As Registrar and/or Director of Admissions. Administrative experience as registrar admissions officer and assistant to dean. Teaching experience in American Government and Public Administration. Practical experience in student personnel counseling, and administrative procedures analysis. Ph.D., male, married, Protestant, 34 years of age. Address S., care Editor. (2/2)

POSITION WANTED: As Director of Admissions and/or Registrar. Fourteen years of experience in an eastern liberal arts college. Available in June 1953. Family man. Also taught history two years in the college and served as Director of Evening Adult Education Program. Address P. G., care Editor. (1/1)

POSITION WANTED: Director or Assistant Director of Admissions. Four years of experience in teaching and all phases of admissions including administrative procedure analysis and foreign student counseling. M.A., Columbia; male, married. Prefer Northeastern U. S. or West Coast. Address B, care Editor. (1/2)

WANTED: An Evaluations Secretary in Registrar's Office, Humboldt State College. Position open July first. Beginning salary \$341. Experience in Admissions or Registrar's office desirable. Apply to Myrtle M. McKittrick, Registrar, Humboldt State College, Arcata, California.

LIBRARIANSHIP WANTED: Woman, B.S. in Lib. Sci., M.S. in Lib. Sci., over eight years' experience as head of departments in public and university libraries, wishes position as head librarian of an excellent junior college, college, or university. Address S.T., care Editor. (1/1)